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ABSTRACT

This report of a workshop on various aspects of adult learning and education contains the following papers: "Take This Job And Shape It: Using Journal Writing to Enrich Your Professional Life" (David Shallenberger, Phyllis Walden); "Assessing Math Skills of Adult Learners" (Betty Hurley Lawrence); "Using Visual Arts for Cultural Analysis: Adult Learners in the Renaissance" (Betty LoSardo); " 'As the Hub Turns': Centripetal and Centrifugal Forces Acting on Long Distance/Extended Site Learning Centers" (Robert D. Clark and others); "Distance Learning and a Dynamic Assessment of Quality" (Daniel Granger and Kate Gulliver); "A Comprehensive Plan for Program Evaluation" (Dan A. Davis); "Who Are We Really Teaching? Who Is Learning? Creating and Using Institutional Profiles of Adult Students" (Richard A. Schalinske and others); "Alternative Approaches to Inquiry: Conceptions of Self, Knowledge, and Curriculum in Adult Degree Programs" (Mary S. Carlson); "Achieving the Purposes of Liberal Arts Education: A Developmental Approach" (Edith Kusnic); "Curriculum Issues for Non-Traditional Programs: General Education for Civic Effectiveness" (Robert H. McKenzie); "The Unknown Territory of This Side of the Horizon: Adult Education in an Incoherent Culture" (Lee Herman and Allan Mandell); "Internships and Field Experience Learning for Adult and Nontraditional Students" (Susanne B. Darnell); "Transforming Learners into Scholars through Writing" (Carole Ganim); "Diversity in the Classroom: Group Strategies" (Miriam Ben-Yoseph and Edward Harris); "Those Who Sell, Organize, Compute, Write, Market, Design, Manage... May Also Be Able to Teach With Little Stimulus from an Academic Institution. However, Are Part-Time Faculty Receptive to Programs to Improve Vitality?" (Mark Fenster); "Developing, Assessing, and Improving Faculty Quality through Peer Review" (Donald B. Clardy and Elaine Cahalan Hollinsbe); "The Dilemma of Practitioner Research: Lessons from Ethnography and Practice" (Irene Philip Stoller); "Illuminative Evaluation: A Strong Measure of Academic Advising Effectiveness for the Adult Learner" (Mary J. Didelot); "Questioning Adult Learners" (Sylvain Nagler and others); "Academic Advising as a Basis for Program Development" (Karla Klinger); "Factors Contributing to the Importance of Advisors" (Diane Ganiere and Patrick Kavanaugh); "Library Services for Adult Students: What Difference Do They Make?" (Susan Swords Steffen and Gary S. Ruther); "The Contact Hour Conundrum: What Difference Does It Make? The Impact of Reduced Contact Hours in a Degree Program for Working Adults" (Lillian Barden); and "Hello Out There: Getting In Touch With Potential Students" (Michael C. T. Brookes and Margaret Watkins). (GLR)

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on Alternative and External Degree Programs for Adults

EXPLORING OUR HORIZONS

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EXPLORING OUR HORIZONS

TWELFTH NATIONAL CONFERENCE ON ALTERNATIVE AND EXTERNAL DEGREE PROGRAMS FOR ADULTS

October 8-10, 1992

Evanston, Illinois

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WORKSHOP

AND

TEACHING FOR LIFELONG LEARNING

TAKE THIS JOB AND SHAPE IT: USING JOURNAL WRITING TO ENRICH YOUR PROFESSIONAL LIFE

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Assistant Professor

Phyllis Walden
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DePaul University
School for New Learning

> *What do I want to say in this article? What does Phyllis want to say? Do we want to entice people to come to the workshop? Get them to journal? Give them some sort of resource, whether or not they could come? Probably all of the three. But since I long ago learned that you can't make anyone do anything, and that it's much easier to let go, I'll focus on the third.* (from David's journal)

> *Are there current themes in adult higher education we might want to pick up on? The development of voice, the expanded meaning of scholarship, the notion of the teacher as scholar and classroom research for instance. Can we do this and keep it an authentic, connected, empowering learning experience for participants? And how do we convey the process that this session is about in the package of the conference proceedings?* (from Phyllis's journal)

This workshop is about making journal writing a part of one's professional development in a rich, meaningful, and productive way. We hope to give the reader--whether or not she or he makes it to the workshop--some ideas and resources about how keeping a professional journal might fit into his or her life.

Many of us--perhaps most--pick up our pens at one time or another and start journals. They may range from the "deepest

thoughts" diaries of high-school years (yes, boys write them, too!) to very structured productivity-enhancing tools of professionals. What typically happens, however, is that we have lapses, from a few days to weeks, years, or the rest of our lives. Similarly--and perhaps relatedly--we find these journals more and less helpful at different points in our lives.

We hope that this workshop, article, and supplementary handouts will prove helpful to those who are exploring ways to make your journals more valuable to yourselves, particularly as professionals. We hope that those who are using journals primarily in their personal life will be sufficiently intrigued to extend its application to your work.

Each of us began writing a journal for his or her unique reasons. And each of us has continued or not, for a related set of reasons. Maybe we see writing as catharsis, or an opportunity to process feelings and to grow emotionally or spiritually. Perhaps journals allow us to reflect more clearly, or to organize our thoughts, moving them along to a new level. Perhaps writing helps us clarify goals and "monitor" our development and movement toward those goals. Maybe--and hopefully--they do all of these.

> **Take a minute to capture why this subject interests you. Why have you kept a journal--if you have--in the past? What did you hope to get out of it? To what extent were you successful?**

As professionals, we may not have thought of using a journal for exploring our work, either on a day-to-day or "big picture" basis. As facilitators of this workshop, we have found that when we limit journal writing to our personal lives, we are missing a

wonderful opportunity to engage more richly in self-assessment and professional development. As educators, we can become better facilitators and teachers, administrators and leaders as we become more integrated as persons. We can use our journals to design classes, enrich our experience in research, improve our teaching skills, and monitor burn-out. By expanding our journals to include our work, we develop a rich resource to use in integrating ourselves as persons and professionals, and as teachers and scholars, as we become more effective reflective practitioners.

> *Work is quiet, and I can't quite seem to get going. Fortunately, I don't have much to do. My "Invisible Minorities" course is into its final stage of student presentations, so I don't have to prepare much for it. The first set of presentations were great. I need to write up evaluations for my "Valuing Human Differences" collqouium; I got mixed reviews, because I didn't focus enough on the workplace and I gave too much energy to gay folks (no more than to any other group--I see that as a homophobic response.)* (from David's journal)

> *I sit with my planner and am overwhelmed with the ever growing list. While I am so overloaded that I cannot commit myself to writing in my journal, here is where I come first. To center. To be with myself. To sit here. Quietly enjoying the spring morning. The sunlight. So many days of gray and glum. A sunny morning is worth noticing, welcoming, and celebrating even though it is not on my list of things to do. This is what gives me the perspective to work through graduation dossiers, do the massive amounts of paper work that confirm, verify, document, approve, and build fat files that go--why, I don't know where they go--to the great cosmic registrar who records records endlessly?* (from Phyllis's journal)

> **Take ten minutes and explore the question, "What time is it in my professional life?" What are the challenges facing you? What are the opportunities? How does where you are not reflect where you've been and where you're going?**

It might be useful to take a few more minutes and identify key moments in your professional development until now, establishing signposts along the journey you've taken. Many find this perspective offered by this experience useful in both reflecting on the past and looking ahead. Ask yourself, next, if you are "on target" for where you want to be in five years, ten years, twenty five years. As you look back near the end of your life, will you be able to say that you have fulfilled your sense of mission?

Once you are clearer on your professional journey, it is easier to identify how your journal may be a helpful tool. What priorities do your long-term hopes and expectations suggest? What are your current projects and priorities? Perhaps one or more of the following will be helpful journal topics for you.

> **What is your role in your institution? What are you really responsible for? What do you enjoy and what do you wish you could change/ What would your ideal job be?**
>
> **Is research an important activity for you right now? Are you engaged in meaningful inquiry or scholarship? Why or why not?**
>
> **How do you feel about your abilities as a teacher and facilitator? What are you doing well? Are there skills you would like to further develop?**

Using a professional journal is not just for periods when it is crucial for you to see your entire journey as a whole and when you are necessarily reflective. The big journey is made up of day-to-day incidents. A valuable use of the professional journal is to capture these moments as you design your next class, reflect on the latest interview in your research, or plan for

tomorrow's faculty meeting. In the workshop, we'll help you start capturing these concrete experiences.

We will try to point the way toward some of the fun and joy and pleasure of journal writing for professional enrichment by playing with some topics that we hope generate humor and laughter.

> **If my career were a song right now, what would it be? What's the genre? Blues? Easily listening? A Rap? Classical? Protest?**

Even with the sheer enjoyment that journals offer and their potential as valuable resources, there are clearly obstacles, reservations, and logistical concerns. Some we hear frequently--and make ourselves--include

"I just don't have time to do this regularly."

"I end up with little scraps of paper everywhere."

"I never go back to my old journals, anyway."

As a community of journal writers, we will attempt in the workshop to help us all think about the hurdles to journal writing, the reasons behind them, and strategies for overcoming them. There might be some rather simple suggestions for dealing with some of these (spend less time more often; keep your journal in a three-ring notebook, etc.). Others may involve more indepth explorations of resistance.

> **Why have I stopped journalling? What got in my way? What did I put in my way?**

In the end, you need to make the decisions about whether it is worthwhile to you to write a professional journal. We can tell you about our successes and struggles, as can others who

attend the workshop. We can share with you resources and suggestions we have found valuable. You need to make the choice to incorporate them--or not.

RESOURCES

We have found ideas and suggestions from the following helpful in our journal writing. A more complete annotated guide to resources will be available at the workshop.

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-----. Pain and Possibility: Writing Your Way Through Personal Crisis. Los Angeles: Jeremy P. Tarcher, Inc., 1991.

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Assessing Math Skills of Adult Learners

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Assessment is an important aspect of any academic activity. Ideally, assessment occurs regularly, so that an activity or process can be changed to enable the expected outcomes to be reached more fully or more effectively.

Institutions of higher education have become increasingly more sensitive to the issue of assessment, especially as state legislatures have increased demands for accountability. The increased appearance of books on the subject also indicates this trend (e.g. Gray, 1989 and Banta, 1988).

There have emerged two categories of assessment: formative and summative. Formative assessment has as a primary purpose the improvement or development of activities and people. It is internally implemented, informal, ongoing and the emphasis is on suggestions for improvement. Summative assessment has accountability as a primary purpose. It is implemented by an external decision maker, formal, occurs before or after and the emphasis is on overall judgements. (Gray, 1989, p.9) The focus of this paper will be on formative assessment, but the implications of the latter cannot be ignored.

In many cases, mathematics assessment has been dominated by timed tests that are collected and graded. The outcomes of this type of testing are now being questioned. Recently, a National Summit on Mathematics Assessment met (1991) to

discuss this important topic. Their report, For Good Measure: Principles and Goals for Mathematic Assessment, outlined the following principles:

-The primary purpose of assessment is to improve learning and teaching.

-The primary use of results of assessments is to promote the development of the talents of all people.

-The content of assessments is derived from the consensus of the discipline.

From these principles the following goals were set to be reached by the year 2000:

-Assessments will be aligned with the mathematical knowledge, skills, and processes that the nation needs all of its students to know and be able to do.

-Assessment practices will promote the development of mathematical power for all students.

-A variety of effective assessment methods will be used to evaluate outcomes of mathematics education.

-Adequate accountability systems will be used to assess mathematics. (meaning use of multiple measures)

-Guidelines will be developed for judging the quality of all forms of mathematical assessments.

-Mathematics teachers and school administrators will be proficient in using a wide variety of assessment methods for improving the learning and teaching of mathematics.

-The public will become better informed about assessments and assessment practices.

And what mathematical achievement are we trying to assess? A publication of the Mathematical Sciences Education Board, Counting on You, states, "Goals for student performance are shifting from a narrow focus on routine skills to development

of broad-based mathematical power." Broad-based mathematical power refers to students' ability to: discern relationships; reason logically; and use a range of mathematical methods to solve a variety of nonroutine problems (Math Sciences Education Board, 1992, p. 10).

Publications now exist that identify assessment alternatives in mathematics. Assessment Alternatives in Mathematics (Stenmark, 1989) identifies strategies such as student portfolios, open-ended questions, performance assessment and student self-assessment.

All of the references cited above concern elementary and secondary students. What of students in post-secondary education, including adult learners?

Adult learners are ideally perceived as lifelong learners and capable of self-direction in their learning. This means, among other things, that they are persistent, creative, reflective and self-aware. (Candy, 1991, p.130) A self-directed learner is able to review the process of learning and learns constructively. (Candy, 1991, p. 134)

Brookfield (1992) has identified three functions for an evaluation of an adult learner: "(1) it should help the recipient become more adept and critically reflective in regard to the specific learning activity involved, (2)it should assist learners to develop insight into their own habitual learning processes and rhythms so that they can make some judgments about when these should be given free rein and when they should be held in check, and (3) it should assist

adults to develop self-concepts of themselves as learners as a way of nurturing their self-confidence and encouraging their beliefs that areas of skill, knowledge, action and insight that they had formally considered as being closed to them are actually accessible. (p. 22)"

The last function is of critical importance in the assessment of math skills in adults. Too many adults consider math to be unapproachable. Educators like Dorothy Buerk have found that adults, especially adult women, need to experience mathematics positively in order to break the pattern of negativity toward the subject itself as well as their competence as users of mathematics. (Buerk, 1985)

The goals and principles cited above were the guiding principles for the math assessment that I developed over the past year. Most of the math assessments that I reviewed were sets of problems, primarily in multiple-choice format. They basically assessed whether someone was capable of manipulating terms. All dealt with the formal aspect of mathematics, where context has been stripped and symbols remain.

Yet, these tests, mostly timed tests as well, deal with the parts of mathematics that are most foreign to adults. While quite adept at calculating floor space for a carpet or finding a new temperature knowing it just got ten degrees colder, these same adults would quiver at the following set of problems:

20 +(-10)

Find xy for x=30 and y=15.

The math assessment was developed to build on the strengths of adults, rather than emphasize their weaknesses. Therefore, questions are asked in context. For example, numbers are put on a thermometer and fractions are expressed using pizzas and recipes.

In addition, the assessment begins with a frank discussion of mathematical myths and attacks negative feelings about mathematics head on. The playful aspect of problem solving is encouraged and feedback is given quickly and in a friendly manner.

The assessment is a self-assessment for several reasons. The most important person to make aware of needs for further development of math skills is the learner. This learner is very likely convinced of his or her incompetence in this area and feeling quite vulnerable about discussing it with an advisor. The self-assessment increases self-knowledge as well as competence, since it is a teaching instrument as well.

What competencies are tested? Currently, the following topics aré discussed:

whole numbers (using the thermometer)
adding and multiplying fractions
decimals, ratios and percents
picture graphs
pie charts and bar graphs
statistics (mean, median, mode)
plotting points on cartesian coordinate system

graphs of lines and equations of lines

parabolas

A list of resources is included at the end, as well as a post-test.

Currently, this assessment is being piloted with students at Empire State College, primarily at the Rochester Center. Student reactions have been quite positive. Students state that it affirms the math they already know and increases their confidence in their ability to learn the math they will need to learn for their degree. Comments like the following have been typical: "I actually felt less intimidated by idea of 'math' as I went through."

Participants in this workshop at the ACE/Alliance conference will be given the opportunity to try the text version of the math assessment for themselves. There will also be discussion of its appropriateness and effectiveness for adult learners. Copies of the disk version will be available for all interested in taking the package back to their campuses and trying it with students.

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VISUAL ARTS FOR CULTURAL ANALYSIS: ADULT LEARNERS IN THE RENAISSANCE

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Introduction

The Italian Renaissance is a cornerstone of many liberal arts curricula. Particularly as we approach the 500th anniversary of Columbus' voyages to the New World, we need to assess the impact that the Renaissance thinking and traditions have on our development as a nation. Many adult students regard study of the Renaissance as the mark of an educated person, but are ill at ease about taking it on themselves.

For the adult learner, the problem in learning about the Renaissance has to do with its very essence: its placement in what we call "Western" civilization. It requires the memorization of dates, specific locations, lots of unusual names and important figures and events. Because of the enormous amount of information on this period, adult students sometimes lose track of its immense impact. Furthermore, adults are often put off by the reputations of Renaissance heroes, and don't feel they have the tools to assess Renaissance art. Everyone already knows that Michelangelo was a great painter, what's the point in discussing it more?

Through this presentation, I would like to discuss some elements of a course at DePaul

University's competence based college for adults, the School for New Learning. In this course which treats Italian Renaissance history and art, and focuses specifically on the contributions of the Medici family, students gain some knowledge of the place of art and of visual thinking in our own history. Through directed viewing of cultural artifacts of the Renaissance students also begin to evaluate "great" works of art from a new perspective, drawing on their own ability to reflect on and analyze the impact of works of art.

Problems in the Renaissance

A friend visiting from Europe recently remarked that knowledge of Italian Renaissance art was a sure sign of a truly educated American. Most Americans, he reasoned, were too busy studying computer science and marketing strategies to ponder esoterica like fifteenth century iconography. Besides, hadn't we already reduced Michelangelo et al. to turtles? This characterization is particularly salient for the adult learner. Just how useful is knowledge of the Medici family to a career in accounting? What are the pragmatic outcomes of the study of the Italian Renaissance? Is it worth the effort?

Another dilemma faced by the adult student of the Renaissance is the enduring classical aura which surrounds the period and its players. I clearly remember my first quarter teaching this course during which a student interrupted my ponderous lecture on the virtues and talents of Michelangelo to ask, "How can you tell?"

How indeed? Do I know this because I learned it in a college classroom myself? Because a teacher told me? Because I read it in Gombrich's latest treatise? Because it is simply something that every educated person thinks? Do I really believe this myself? Most of my students are not willing to take the risk of asking a "stupid" question. Instead, they feel coerced into believing what the teacher says, especially with regard to

issues of great historical significance like the Renaissance. In order to convince myself that I was really doing something worthwhile for my students, I began to create a classroom environment which would allow students to make their own decisions about the value of the artwork produced by Renaissance greats. No one, I reasoned, should have to be pressured into believing that the Sistine chapel is worth a second look.

Seeing is Believing

As a central episode in this course, students are asked to accompany me on a tour of the Renaissance rooms of Chicago's Art Institute. While the collection does not contain any paintings by Michelangelo or Leonardo da Vinci, it does have a good smattering of works representing a variety of issues and stages in the art of the period (about 1250 to 1550) covered in the course.

The purpose of this tour is to help students assimilate what they see. This presents some peculiar problems. Students who have a Roman Catholic background have a difficult time separating the images in the museum from the many times they have seen these types of pictures in a religious context. Many students will recognize the story a picture tells - the Annunciation for example - and assume that their comprehension of this story was also applicable in Renaissance times. This kind of transference hinders their ability to assess or accept exactly what it is they see. Students without significant religious experience as well as those who come from religious traditions which eschew visual representations of the sacred have other axes to grind with the arts. Annunciation paintings can range from detailed, but emotionless renditions, to paintings in which the virgin actually recoils from the angel's message. What an impact this message must have had. Tour participants are asked to look at the painting, not in order to identify the elements of its composition, or even its religious significance, but rather its human impact. Although the knowledge of the story and its repetition over years of religious

experience or the vague association of the images with religious presuppositions might have dimmed students' ability to see what different paintings might have to offer, this direction to look at the emotional reactions of the figures in a painting offers students the opportunity to assess a work with the eyes of the Renaissance viewer who perhaps had a fresher perspective on the story, its players and its consequence in daily life.

Identifying the Context

In order to make sense of the images presented in the Art Institute's Renaissance rooms, students must accept that art is significant to cultural analysis for a number of reasons. The visual arts can tell a story of cultural values. They can provide us with a synthesized view of social issues and attitudes. The propensity of the visual arts toward controversy pushes our awareness of and our tolerance for ambiguity in our society and in our individual lives. One need only to ruminate on Chicago's own Art Institute's recent strife over the sacredness of the American flag to see these things in action with contemporary problems. In fact, this Chicago institution has presented us with a numberof possibilities for assessing the validity of artistic analysis of culture. Adult students, steeped in the rhetoric of contemporary politics, are knowledgeable about these issues. Most of my students know that the NEA is either in trouble or causing trouble because of its difficulties with satisfying multiple value systems. This knowledge can easily be applied to Renaissance issues. Why, for example, is the shift from obviously religious renditions of the virgin and child to the more human characters of the quattrocento significant? Were the 15th century moralists concerned with the representation of Mary sans halo? Did Jesse Helms have a Renaissance counterpart?

Significance of the Renaissance

Perhaps the most important aspect of teaching Renaissance history and art to an adult audience is the engendering of the idea that there is a reason to study all this stuff. The Italian Renaissance has often been taught as a period unto itself. Its relationship to the Middle Ages or to the Reformation was perhaps dealt with, but little attempt has been made to link this artistically and philosophically productive period with world history - our limited understanding of the Middle East for example - and issues in multiculturalism which are so important in contemporary curricula. Much has been made of late of the facts - or lack thereof - surrounding the shadowy figure of Columbus and his relevance to contemporary American identity. There is even a debate raging about his ethnicity. Was he was Polish? Spanish? Students in the Italian Renaissance course learn, first of all, that the one thing he wasn't was Italian, that political entity having been created only in the 1870s. That he might have been Genoese is of little consequence. What is more important is the impetus which brought him to the New World and which shaped the attitudes of his age toward domination of nature and nations. These attitudes, of course, shape our own identities and philosophies. Viewing the visual arts of the Renaissance period offers many powerful examples of the prominence of the tremendous self-assurance and determination which was characteristic of the age. Examples of Renaissance-style architecture, with its focus on the power and glory of the individual exist in abundance on Chicago's own Michigan Avenue. Students are asked to cogitate on our insistence in replicating this ideology. Do we see ourselves as Renaissance heroes? Are prominent Chicago families equating themselves with the warrior princes of the Renaissance? What is the role of the individual in shaping cultural identity? Do we have a better shot at this than did the individuals of the Renaissance?

Afterthoughts

This method of teaching ultimately requires that the teacher let go of some favored ideas about the significance of the topic and the roles various factsa and figures play. It is inevitable that some students will decide that Michelangelo was not such a big deal after all. Furthermore, the introduction of non-western ideas about art and its place in culture does serve to undermine the very principles on which the course is based. In viewing the art of the Renaissance, i.e., that very esoteric thing which might indeed identify the educated person, students begin to see it as an accessible and perhaps relevant part of everyday life. Their fear of art as a method of distinguishing the enlightened from the uneducated gives way to an understanding of art as a powerful medium of cultural exchange.

TRACK A:

ASSESSING PROGRAM EFFECTIVENESS

"As the Hub Turns": Centripetal and Centrifugal Forces Acting on Long Distance/Extended Site Learning Centers

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PURPOSE

The purpose of this paper is to promote professional dialogue by focusing attention on the forces which act on and within extended site higher education learning centers. Emphasis is placed on the quality of our program offerings and the manner in which quality is incorporated, assessed, and maintained. First, a brief history of our institution's experience with delivery of training at extended sites will be presented. This will be followed by an explication of the "forces", centripetal and centrifugal, as we call them, which influence the character and nature of the functioning of the centers and the main ("hub") campuses and personnel. Included in this section is a discussion of the "academic" and "support" issues in the delivery of quality learning activities. Finally, the audience will be asked to respond to the issues raised and to compare and contrast our institution's experiences with their own experiences and reading.

BACKGROUND

Under increasing pressure from decreasing enrollments, budget cutbacks and resultant higher tuition costs, as well as public demand for institutional accountability and effectiveness, colleges and universities are engaging in entrepreneurial ventures to attract new students. National-Louis University (NLU), historically an innovator in education for the adult learner, has developed and offers a unique operational model designed specifically for the

employed adult student. This model is intended to broaden the range of educational opportunities available to such students in several states.

A private, independent, coeducational institution of higher learning established in Illinois in 1886, NLU is accredited by the North Central Association of Colleges and Schools (NCA). With the support of the Board of Trustees, the university developed an expansion plan based on considerable market research conducted by another institution in a cooperative venture and extensive investigation of state rules and regulations governing out-of-state institutions. One result of this research was a list of cities which were believed to show evidence of need for NLU's academic programs and in states open to investment by out-of-state institutions.

Between 1984 and 1990, NLU capitalized on its demonstrated expertise in successfully delivering high quality off-campus programs and workshops in establishing a European academic center in Heidelberg, Germany and five academic centers outside Illinois, but within the U. S. These centers are located in St. Louis, Missouri; Tampa, Florida; McLean, Virginia; Milwaukee, Wisconsin; and Atlanta, Georgia.

Each center provides academic programming selected in response to the identified educational needs of the local population. Programs at the academic centers are identical to programs offered first by the institution in Illinois. The nature and delivery model of the B. A. degree-completion and Masters programs offered at these centers appeal to working adult students who have heavy professional, family and civic responsibilities. Examples of these programs are a B.A. concentration in management; a B.A. in behavioral science; an M.Ed. in Curriculum and Instruction; and, an M.S. in management. An "intact" continuing class group of about 15 students meets one night a week for four hours in a convenient location near their home or work site to study in programs that link learning and life roles as well as theory and practical application.

Besides the apparently satisfying educational opportunities offered to students in different states, the academic centers have broadened the student base of the university. At the end of the last fiscal year, new students enrolled in the centers represented 23% of the university's annual full-time equivalent (FTE) enrollment revenues.

CENTRIPETAL AND CENTRIFUGAL FORCES

The development of academic centers away from the "home" campus, though successful and highly regarded in the professional community, has had interesting and unanticipated consequences. These consequences have been felt *by* support and academic personnel and *on* operational procedures for operation established at and

for the "home/main" campus location. The institution recently completed a successful comprehensive NCA accreditation visit. The self study process and the comments of the accreditation site review team served to bring to the surface issues not fully recognized or addressed by the institution during its recent growth and expansion to new extended sites. These issues, called here "centripetal and centrifugal forces" will be the main focus of the panel presentation.

Centripetal forces are those which cause the institution to become more centralized. Representative examples are the need for a relatively standardized curriculum, uniform hiring practices, sets of "standard operating procedures" for budgeting and financial transactions, and the like. Centrifugal forces are those which act to decentralize the institution or operational aspects of it. Some examples of these forces are "localized" marketing practices, differential growth patterns of academic programs, different academic program mix, different pay and compensation scales, and many others.

As the extended site operations have developed, however, some tensions have arisen within the institution due to its decentralized nature. These tensions focused on both academic and support issues. Representative examples of faculty/academic forces that have been at issue are: faculty governance structures, promotion and tenure committee functioning, central vs. extended site program planning, central vs. extended site recruitment and admissions decisions. Examples of support/operational tensions are: central vs. extended site budget planning and administration, strategic and tactical planning, "community service", state and regional licensure and accreditation.

No single presentation can adequately address all of these tensions. Therefore, we have endeavored to focus on academic issues only, and more specifically, to discuss the question of Quality Assurance and its relationship to Academic Center operations.

QUALITY

Since the main "product" of our university, as well as other universities, is to deliver *learning* (Langenberg, 1992) we will focus on the quality of learning in a decentralized university. Most lists of program evaluation criteria mention program "quality" as the most important assessment criterion (Cope, 1992). While quality is critical, it is also unclear and difficult to define. Quality is most often defined against some predetermined standards, judgments, and values. But whose standards, judgments and values, remains a critical element in a definition of quality. In the context of this paper, we have not chosen any "pure" standards,

judgments or values to determine what is quality learning. Instead, we have chosen to follow Pirsig (1974) and his treatment of quality, which is: you cannot really define quality, but you know it when you see it. Thus, we sought to answer two questions in reference to the learning process: where do we look and how do we document quality?. Four aspects of learning will be addressed: faculty, students, curriculum, and instructional support services.

I. Quality of Faculty

Teaching & Research: Faculty generally are expected to perform in three areas: teaching, research and service to the institution. How do we ensure quality in these areas, especially in a decentralized organization? The quality of research conducted by faculty in decentralized organizations should be measured in the same way as in centralized structures. Thus, we will not address the quality of research in this section. We are aware of the fact, however, that there are problems of support for faculty research which will be addressed in section IV below.

The quality of teaching and service would be assessed somewhat differently in centralized vs. decentralized university structures. Common ways to measure and document teaching quality include student ratings, self evaluation, peer evaluation, evaluation or syllabi, tests, and other materials developed by an individual faculty member, informal student opinions, and students' selection of particular elective courses. As mentioned earlier, our decentralized structure incorporates off site campuses which employ a small number of core faculty and a large number of adjunct faculty. A question must be asked whether busy adjuncts, who work full time in other places can be asked or expected to evaluate each other. In a small program at one location, it is difficult to ask students and colleagues to rate faculty objectively and candidly. In a small academic center, the pool of available electives is limited. To overcome some of the difficulties inherent in operations at extended sites the university has developed the following faculty screening and selection process. In other words, assessment of quality in teaching is carried out before a faculty member begins teaching.

After reviewing and screening resumes of potential adjunct faculty candidates, we invite about 15 to attend a four hour activity night that includes: a leaderless group discussion (the 15 candidates are asked to participate in an hour session discussing a given issue during which experienced faculty observe and rate them on a series of predetermined dimensions); individual interview with an experienced faculty; and an in basket exercise (the candidates are asked to respond in writing to a student's brief research proposal). Each candidate is observed and rated by one experienced faculty, interviewed by another experienced faculty, and still another experienced faculty

reviews the candidate's response to the research proposal. This way a thorough attempt is made to get a balanced impression of the candidate's ability and skills.

This manner of selection of faculty members differs to a considerable degree from the manner in which both full and part time faculty are selected for positions at the central campus in metropolitan Chicago. The procedure used in Illinois is not nearly as thorough and involved. In this respect, the faculty selection process at extended sites exceeds that used in the Chicago metropolitan area. There are also college to college differences. The College of Management and Business procedure differs from that followed in the Colleges of Education and Arts and Sciences. Suffice it to say that there are differences in the selection and retention of faculty at the central and extended site campuses.

Service: Quality of service in decentralized organizations can be achieved through whole university retreats and committee membership. Institutional retreats and committee work provide opportunities for: (1) clarification and enhancement of the institution's mission and goals; (2) professional and social exchange among faculty and between faculty and administrators; and (3) collaboration among faculty. These, in turn, enhance not only the quality of service, but also the quality of teaching and research. Thus, to ensure quality of service, much attention should be paid to planning and designing retreats and to the ways faculty participate in and carry out the committee work.

The university makes extensive use of teleconferencing to ensure participation of faculty at extended sites in the committee and faculty governance structures of the university. Over time the quality of the equipment and the skill of committee members in using it to conduct meetings has improved. However, there are still shortcomings in conducting meetings and involving faculty in university service via this means. The use of the technology is necessary but not sufficient to insure that faculty at extended sites are guaranteed the "exposure" and leadership necessary for peer promotion and tenure review purposes.

II. Quality of Students

The criteria and requirements for admission of undergraduate and graduate students at extended sites is the same as for admitted students at the central campus. However, a major difference in the way in which students are enrolled in the courses exists in the extended sites versus the central campus. The students coming to the extended sites are admitted, most frequently, into intact groups which meet as a cohort for a prescribed period of time.

Assuming all assignments are completed satisfactorily, the degree is awarded at the end of the set period of class meetings.

Students for the extended sites are "recruited" by enrollment counselors with some pressure to fill cohort groups at certain levels and on a "start-when-ready" basis. This can result in students starting training programs prior to formal admission. To some degree, therefore, faculty have less control over the students who are admitted. Part of the reason for the manner of admission and way in which classes are offered is due to the assumption that students attracted to these extended site programs are more mature and motivated than students admitted to more traditional training programs.

Students at the central campus in all three colleges are admitted to and take classes in a more traditional way. Classes are then offered in the more traditional academic terms. Student progress is more individual and academic advisors work with individual students to monitor and guide progress through the sequence of courses to degree completion. This latter system provides, some would argue, more control over the quality of students admitted. This question of student quality remains an open one.

The ways in which faculty and administration try to insure the quality of admitted students in extended site degree programs is through two types of assessment: assessment of results and assessment of process. Assessment of results is done through standardized test results, when available. In addition proof of previous academic course work is demonstrated by transcript. Finally, those seeking undergraduate credit for non-traditional learning experiences submit detailed portfolio's demonstrating competence.

Assessment of process seeks to assess not how much students have learned but how students have learned. From a philosophical standpoint, we believe that a critical goal of any educational institution is to produce independent learners who can go on to learn on their own. The practical, assessment of results requires organizational resources (budget, staff to administer the tests) that are not always available in small, off site campuses. To insure the quality of the learning process. However, there are difficulties in assessing "process". Points that have been identified to improve the assessment of process are: faculty training in process evaluation; more standardized papers and projects (that require self-study) should replace tests and exams; independent study courses should be incorporated into the curriculum (and faculty should be able to earn teaching credit for this form of teaching); and, reflection and reaction papers in which students describe and analyze the learning process they

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experienced.

III - Quality of Curriculum

Oliva (1982) wrote that "the secrets of evaluation are to ask questions, to ask the *right* questions, to ask the *right* questions of the *right* people" (p. 428). This process, a challenging one under any circumstances, becomes particularly so when the curriculum under consideration is offered at a distant, or external, site where the class setting, the students, the faculty, and the programs are best described as "alternative or non-traditional". Nonetheless, because of its distance and its differences, this curriculum may be subject to particularly close scrutiny both inside of and outside of (e.g., accrediting bodies in the institution. Thus, evaluation must be addressed.

Over time, various models or approaches have been forwarded to suggest appropriate curriculum evaluation methods (see Oliva, 1982, Chapter 13, for a thorough discussion). In general, these models which offer guidance with respect to those steps involved in curriculum evaluation would also seem appropriate for curriculum evaluation and examination of alternative programs offered at distant sites. Most generally, one likely would begin by examining the goals and objectives of the distant site program and its curriculum. This would be followed, in some form, by an examination of the individual parts of the curriculum (e.g., the extent to which courses flow from the goals and objectives).

For example, NLU offers an alternative, external degree program for adults which offers bachelor's completion degrees in the area of management. The general mission of the program, and, hence, of its curriculum is to enhance the managerial effectiveness of individuals working in a variety of organizational settings. Moreover, objectives associated with the program (and, thus, with the curriculum) include (but are not limited to) the following: exposing students to the most recent developments and methods in the area of management; improving students' skills in the area of communication (e.g., written, oral, interpersonal); and, improving students' self concept and confidence. Arguably, the first key question(s) to raise in the pursuit of evaluation (and, hence, in the determination of quality) might address the extent to which these are good, reasonable or meaningful goals and objectives.

Traditionally, this question (and more specific, underlying questions) would be asked in survey, interview, or testimonial format of students, faculty, or alumni. All these sources historically have been considered important, and all are likely to produce different types of useful information. Nonetheless, all are highly subjective sources

of information, and all are highly subject to the cognitive dissonance which surely may result when one criticizes the curriculum which one studies or has developed. Thus, other sources should be "tapped". An appropriate audience, a source which objectively could address the meaningfulness and appropriateness of goals and objectives of a university curriculum would be employers or prospective employers (e.g., various organizational members of the business community). This is not a novel suggestion, but it is one which is much underutilized. Yet, for a business curriculum, this audience would be expected to be of inestimable evaluation assistance, particularly in light of the business community's frequently raised concerns regarding the preparedness (or lack thereof) of business students. For a distant site program, this approach would seem doubly appropriate as it would suggest that physical absence from the university need not impede the pursuit of rigor and quality.

Additional key questions in the curriculum evaluation process would be raised to determine whether the curriculum is successful with respect to meeting particular objectives, for example, the extent to which: students know the latest developments in the area of management; students' communication skills improved; and, students' self concepts improved.

Traditionally, outcomes assessment involves the solicitation of opinions from students, faculty, and alumni. It also includes, of course, examples of students' work. However, more powerful approach would be the collection of pre-program and post-program student performance data (collected on an individual basis from members of intact cohort groups) a seemingly necessary and important evaluation approach for distant site adult programs which tout the impact of their integrative and experiential natures on skill learning and behavioral change in students. Even allowing for the effects of maturation and various potential confounds (see Astin, 1991, Chapter 2, for a discussion of pretest-posttest issues in assessment in a university environment) the collection of a large body of pre and post-program data could be of evaluative assistance. Note that this form of evaluation creatively could be inserted into the curriculum itself in the form of assessment centers or self-analysis and professional development sessions. Thus, the pretest-posttest process need not appear artificial or intrusive.

IV - Quality of Instructional Support Services

The fourth component of the learning process is instructional support services. Instructional support is the term we are using for all aspects of extended site operations that support the delivery of the academic degrees and programs offered by the university.

The structure of all academic centers is similar. Center management is provided through a dual organizational structure which separates management of the operational functions from instruction. Academic services, financial services, recruitment, community and state board relations, logistical support for all center personnel and all other noninstructional activities are the responsibility of the Center Director. The managers of the academic services, financial services, student affairs, and recruitment activities report directly to the Center Director; however, to ensure technical accountability and access to related expertise, they also report to their counterpart functional directors in Evanston in a "dotted line" capacity. This "dual" reporting has, at times, led to conflicts and confusion.

The program of instruction and the faculty for a particular program are supervised by an academic Program Director. The Program Director acts as the on-site academic head and reports directly to the Dean of the college which oversees that academic program. For example, the on-site Program Director for the management programs reports to the Dean of the College of Management and Business. The Program Director and the Center Director work in concert to serve students in the most effective manner at the highest level of quality possible. As above, this dual responsibility for academic and support services has led to some conflicts and confusion.

Students access financial aid, student accounts, records and registration and academic services of the university through on-site employees. Student affairs services are also available at each center. Major components of NLU's library services to the academic centers include library instruction classes taught by a university librarian, bibliographies of professional literature from CD-ROM and online databases, reference services accessible by toll-free phone number and document delivery service by mail or fax to students' homes or offices.

Since managed growth of the academic centers is a goal of the university, current management efforts are directed toward reassessing and strengthening their organizational foundation. Specific objectives include greater standardization in staffing patterns, processes and procedures unique to the centers, and greater clarification of the Center Directors' responsibilities and relationships with technical support functions and collaborating academic staff. Since the centers now represent a significant student population, and since their managers have developed significant expertise in delivering quality academic programs in locations away from the primary support offices, greater contribution to university planning is also a goal.

The operations of the centers in support of instructional activities is evolving and differs somewhat from

location to location. It is not possible to explicate all of the issues that arise in the attempt to offer all student related services at all locations. However, the following is a list of the most salient issues which have arisen and which are being addressed by the university. These issues are: fostering a team spirit among staff and faculty; increasing communication among centers and between the home campus and an individual center; faculty selection for this type of academic role; managing "local rule" vs. centralization issues; development of new academic programs for the academic centers; and, respective state licensure for these centers.

SUMMARY

The focus of this paper is on the difficulties in offering academic programs at multiple extended sites, far distant from the main/central university campus. We have attempted to focus on four areas of program quality: faculty, students, curriculum and support services. Difficulty in faculty and student selection were highlighted. Curriculum design, support, standardization, and evaluation was also addressed. Finally, the model of support services and the difficulty in maintaining such instructional support services were discussed.

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Distance Learning and a Dynamic Assessment of Quality

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Introduction: "Distances" to Learning

Until the recent past, there were a number of assumptions we could make about education which enabled us to focus on relatively few indicators -- e.g., faculty reputation, resource availability, student selection, and time on task -- to determine the probability of good quality. The assumptions that could be made concerned:

1. Students' general profile in terms of study habits and classroom protocol; their prior knowledge and basic skills; their background in terms of prior education, student experiences, and even social standing and general expectations; their personal circumstances and context, such as approximate age, absence of major competing agendas, and material resources adequate to complete the program undertaken. Students seemed to be, in other words, the "clean slates" awaiting the inscription of education.
2. A generally "fixed" content for which straightforward presentation was appropriate with most subjects; interpretations of the "facts" were often simply other "facts" for students to master.

3. The faculty role was one of content expert, either the source of "facts" or how to understand the "facts" (a priest of the mysteries of knowledge, as Frederick Crews has suggested).

These assumptions made possible the sense of a kind of seamless coherence in education, in which the student's learning needs were met by the program provided by the faculty and institution. That impression of seamlessness, however, as well as each of those assumptions, has increasingly been challenged on every front. Consider:

1. A miner in the Yukon keeping in daily contact with his professors at the University of Washington via electronic mail does not fit the traditional student profile, nor does the student who misses several key class meetings for lack of child care.

2. A successful and quite busy mid-level manager needs a degree for promotion, but she has extreme difficulty in written expression.

3. A student in a macro-economics course who protests that the professor's explanation of the recent local mill closing ignored and failed to explain the impact on the town or on laid-off workers like her father and brother.

4. An engineering professor recognizes that one student, an experienced firefighter, knows far more than he about applied hydraulic physics but is unfamiliar with the theoretical terminology.

With the possible exception of the student in the Yukon, each of these students is at some significant distance from successful educational opportunities. The Yukon student may in fact be at much less distance than the macro-economics student in a 500-seat lecture hall watching the professor on a video monitor. Each of these other students may or may not be best served by a classroom

program that meets 2 or 3 times a week on a regular basis, but each of them has some other "distance" which must be crossed before successful learning is possible. Physical distances, often the most apparent, are also readily crossed by the range of technologies now available, making them often the least worrisome of the "distances." What truly effective programs for these students will have in common is a "student-centeredness" that is effectively responsive to the learning needs of these students -- whether through a more effective delivery system, through a way of utilizing the student's own experience and past learning within the program, through assessing and strengthening a student's learning skills profile, or through presenting the course content to recognize diverse perspectives and approaches.

While the use of new technologies to span physical distances and barriers is impressive, crossing these other distances is key to the creation of successful learning experiences. Solving the technological delivery problem may be the most dramatically visible concern, but it is often only the beginning. When the Learn Alaska project of the early 1980's spent millions on an elaborate communications network, the "content" was educational programming borrowed from the lower 48 states. The latest in sophisticated technology had brought to these Alaskans, many of them part of the native population, educational programs that were still a great distance from good learning opportunities (Hershfield, 1987).

* * *

The ACE/Alliance Principles of Good Practice recognize the critical importance of student-centered learning. They establish standards for what is essentially a dynamic assessment process, whereby the quality of an institution's programs will be judged not by rigid "input" requirements but by the outcomes achieved through a variety of approaches, including distance learning. Within the context of the institutional mission statement, does a program actively meet student needs in terms of content, pedagogy, and appropriate supports? In a review of the Principles conducted in 1989-90, a special task group recognized that they can be readily applied to distance learning programs for adults with little or no adaptation. When a later ACE-related group pressed a bit further, to assist in the development and evaluation of distance learning programs, the Principles were found to require more specifics and possibly some redirection in terms of:

-- the definition of learners (e.g., not all distance education students are adults, hence assumptions/theories about adult learners may not be universally applicable)

-- the definition of the learning environment/experience, whether/how the distance factor fundamentally alters the learning experience, and if so, what different instructional/support elements need to be introduced

-- the role of technology

-as delivery system/communication medium/ enhancement

-Does it alter the learning experience?

-Does it require different criteria for judging quality in: selection/training of faculty; selection/use of/access to learning resources; assessment; administrative practices; student support/development services; evaluation of course quality?

-Does the intervening factor of technology alter the content?

"Distance education" is, in fact, only a temporary term to describe an evolutionary phase in the development and delivery of education. Ultimately, when these new forms of learning have become the rule rather than the exception, we will stop singling them out as "distance education," but see them all as elements of an open educational system. In short, our terminology and our very concept of education are dynamic and in constant flux, whether or not we know it or like it. In the meantime, the forms in which the "traditional" face-to-face, group, authoritarian teacher/learner model is being disassembled and transformed by pedagogical and technological changes are many and varied, and "distance education" is a loose, vague but convenient term by which we refer to them in the aggregate. As a result, we find it practically impossible to construct a single, comprehensive, yet useful definition for distance education.

While education and its delivery are undergoing this evolution, the "gatekeepers" whose job it is to protect the public

agains poor quality programs or outright educational fraud need something more prescriptive than general principles as the basis for making and acting on their regulatory decisions. The November, 1990, Invitational Symposium on Emerging Critical Issues in Distance Higher Education, by bringing together educational providers, regulators, and accreditors around these quality issues, provided the impetus for the creation both of the distance education principles of good practice and for cooperative action on the part of the regulatory community to address their more specific need (Granger, 1991). Bulding on the work begun in the 1984 ALLTEL Project, New York and Virginia education authorities, with support from the IBM Corporation, launched an effort to create a common information base as a first step toward a national consensus on defining and assessing quality in distance education programs. To date seven states (New York, Virginia, Connecticut, Kentucky, Illinois, Pennsylvania, Texas) have agreed to adopt this "uniform information form" as the basis for their review of programs operating within their borders, while a number of others are considering its adoption. While this action is a long way from "reciprocity" or a national system of regulation, it is a beginning.

The uniform information form, however, simply provides a way of categorizing and standardizing institutional information about distance education programs, such as the organization and administration, the resource base, program design and instructional

staffing, technologies used, and student services. It does not articulate specific values for each of those in terms of their use or importance. Yet it is precisely the particular selection, configuration, and application of components and factors in relation to the students served which determines the program's effectiveness. The decision to build on the work of ACE and the Alliance in their Principles of Good Practice provided a ready-made and well thought out inventory of program elements to review for their applicability to distance education. While there was general agreement among reviewers that few if any of these principles were inappropriate to distance learning, neither did they address the specific concerns or applications of distance learning, especially in the uses of technological tools.

To obtain more systematic feedback from practitioners in the use of distance education on the appropriateness and relative importance of each of the principles and sub-principles, a delphi study is being undertaken with the advice and assistance of Dr. Connie Dillon of the University of Oklahoma. The study will be administered to a large sample of distance learning educators, administrators and faculty, as well as accreditors and state education regulators. The results will be used to create an applied version of the principles of good practice for distance education which can be used for program development, evaluation, and improvement, and as the basis for more specific programmatic guidelines or even regulations.

The objective is to determine what characteristics are essential and unique to good distance education; the delphi study will help us to understand what is currently understood as important for distance learning practitioners and concerned educators. We must determine what is unique to or special about distance learning that requires special or distinct examination.

Are there unique concerns about resources in a distance education program to be of good quality? Or to be fully available?

What are the limitations of the delivery system used and how are they compensated for?

Are there special needs for interaction in a particular mode? How is it made possible?

Is face-to-face contact important here?

Are there unique concerns in supporting learning skills or special perspective needs here?

The delphi study will attempt to reach a consensus among a broad national group of distance educators. With this consensus in hand, the hope is then to devise a dynamic assessment tool, rooted in and framed broadly by the "Principles of Good Practice," that will examine the extent to which program provision meets the needs of its learners based on an understanding of the institution's mission, the learner, & the resources available. To meet the standards of the "Principles of Good Practice" requires considerable attention to the utilization of distance learning

techniques, pedagogies and technologies (within the scope of the institutional resource availability) in order to provide programs that meet the needs of learners and and are appropriate to the content studied. The goal is standards of practice that will not simply accept a technologically delivered lecture or program without attention to the intended audience of students and the overall program design.

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A COMPREHENSIVE PLAN FOR PROGRAM EVALUATION

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It came swirling softly from the horizon, catching bits and pieces along the fringe, then finding pockets where it picked up substance and form. The next thing we knew, it surrounded us, pushing us from behind, putting pressure here and there, and forcing us to the future. That's they way it's been . . . the accountability movement.

Throughout the 1980's, the call for accountability in higher education developed from several directions. George Keller's 1983 book, *Academic Strategy: The Management Revolution in American Higher Education*, became a basic reference for many institutional review processes and long-term plans. In a 1986 U.S. Department of Education publication focusing on issues of assessment, Terry Hartle said that assessment is not a fad. He and others have pointed out that the concerns for review, assessment and planning initially had been projected from external groups such as governors, legislatures, and accrediting agencies. Recognizing these declarations or finding support in them, academic leaders began to develop plans and procedures which would lead to further and better examination of teaching and learning as it is practiced in institutions of higher education.

Associated with these developments have been several reports and position papers from national organizations and groups which support institutional and program improvements. The ACE/Alliance "Principles of Good Practice for Alternative and External Degree Programs for Adults" is an example. Likewise, "Inventories of Good Practice in Undergraduate Education" sponsored by the Education Commission of the States, The American Association of Higher Education, and the Johnson Foundation, and another Johnson sponsored report, "Principles of Good Practice for Combining Service and Learning" outline expectations which have led to criteria and standards developed in many programs.

Currently, program review, assessment, accreditation/certification, long-range strategic planning and other concepts have become central to our daily lives as administrators and program leaders. Many program leaders would admit, I'm sure, that early experiences were often approached with the attitude that these were things

being imposed on us administratively and were not all that helpful. As the plans and procedures developed and improved through practice, we have come to see their value and their implications for quality. Also, we have come to realize that we must integrate these activities into the other efforts of our academic units and programs. Further, our considerations are not only within the context of our particular unit or program, but must also be perceived in relation to other programs within our institution and, indeed, within the mission, purposes and operations of the institution as a whole.

This session might be more appropriately titled "Looking at Program Evaluation Comprehensively." This presentation is designed to present an overview of many evaluative techniques and the ways in which evaluation contributes to program review and planning. Moreover, it seeks to show how several techniques can be incorporated into a comprehensive plan which encompasses evaluation of students, alumni, faculty, and leadership in addition to program components and the program as a whole.

Evaluation has always been a part of higher education with obvious reference to grades, end-of-course evaluations, analysis of enrollment trends, and other well-worn practices often viewed with mixed value. Sometimes we're not sure how good the information is or how useful it is. But it is noted that the trends of accountability have led to careful examination of expectations, and now, to demands which focus on the quality and satisfaction for the educational services we deliver.

The demand for information has been enhanced by the availability of computer programs which compile mountains of data for statistical analysis and consideration. While this information is most helpful in the evaluation process, a brief, but fundamental point is that effective evaluation must include considered, comprehensive judgement of the evaluators as well as data based facts and figures. As a math professor friend reminds me, we must not just look at the figures, we must ponder what the figures mean.

Now, let me present evaluation aspects from the context of the three major components of a program---students, faculty, and the program itself. Here are a number of points for evaluation for which there can be written documentation through form or format.

(In the oral presentation, participants will receive a hand-out of items presented below and asked to complete a survey concerning the extent to which the evaluation techniques are used in their programs. The results will be shared during the session. Also, overhead projections of models and sample of evaluation forms will be used.)

Evaluation of Students

Admission Application The application form can play an important role in the assessment of students if its questions are more than demographic and include items about the applicants experience, goals and other aspects of personal development and motivation. Many programs use writing assignments or interviews which not only help in admission considerations, but can be base lines for later progress review. It is interesting to note that the more extended admission application was a central feature of adult degree programs which developed in the 1970's; in more recent years, the same approaches were adopted in minority admission practices, and now, the practices are more wide-spread in all academic units.

End of Course Evaluation Grades are a normal expectation, yet other evaluative comments and observations from the faculty through written narrative statements about performance and potential of the student can be helpful to both the student and the program. Several innovative programs in the 1970's used narrative transcripts extensively. It appears to be a practice in decline now.

Standardized Tests Program, institutional, and national norms can provide comparative data for the student and the program. In the assessment program model, institutions usually use three types of tests. Initially, admission and placement tests are given to new students. Later, at somewhere near the mid-point of progress in the degree plan, achievement or progress tests are used. Finally, program end or graduation tests are given.

Interviews, consultations Reports of individual faculty or committee meetings can address the student's progress. While these might tend to be more subjective and anecdotal if not planned and structured, sessions in which the goals and outcomes are clearly defined and reported in the student's record can be most helpful for all concerned. In many programs, some form of mid-point assessment through a meeting or consultation is a requirement.

Award, honor applications These materials generally provide the "best statements" about the student from several dimensions including ability, character and motivation.

Student's major concluding project An end-of-program project, paper, or other effort of this nature can provide a cumulative result of the student's achievement not only in respect to the topic or issue of the paper, but as well, in terms of the writing and research ability demonstrated in the work.

Internship/training review Another point of evaluation may involve an evaluator outside the academic setting. In the intern or practicum setting, the student's supervisor in the workshop can offer perspectives on the student's performance which may not be noticed by the academic teacher or supervisor.

Career placement The institution's services and programs which interface with the student's employer can provide opportunity for assessment. Survey or other information gained from the employers can address quality issues in respect to the student's learning and academic experience.

Alumni follow-up Alumni comments offer reflective evaluation of their academic experience to their post-academic career and community life. Follow-up questionnaires asking for satisfaction and value added estimations and comments call for graduates to think about their academic experience and comment on the extent to which it has affected their current behavior.

All of these are seen as ways to evaluate the progress of an individual student and to help him or her have progress through the academic program. To serve the student best, the student must have access to the information and should have opportunities for feedback and discussion related to it.

As indicated, the evaluative information mentioned is directed to inform the individual student about progress, the collective data of numbers of students can be used to evaluate a particular process, feature, course, or for that matter, a professor's performance. Administrators are more prone to use the collective data, of course; but it is imperative that the program administrator note and support faculty, counselors and

staff who work with students individually and use the individual student's evaluative information.

Evaluation of Faculty

Faculty performance review is an accepted practice in higher education and at the highest level would be seen at the tenure or the promotion review. These processes vary from institution to institution, of course. Generally, the basis of review is fairly broad covering the range of expectations held for the professor. In the case of faculty who are not in tenure and promotion, perhaps adjunct or part-time faculty, the review process is important as a major point of information leading to the person's being asked to teach again.

Here, let me stop a moment to consider faculty evaluation from a viewpoint that may be held by many of you. That is, in many adult and unconventional programs, it is common to use part-time or over-load faculty who have their primary appointment in another academic unit of the institution. Over the past several years, one of the issues I have heard most often in meeting such as this one has to do with the ways in which the teaching and service performance record in our programs can be effectively placed into the professor's departmental or institutional record.
I know this has been a concern of continuing education leaders as they often have seen a faculty member's professionalism and excellent performance in a continuing education context go unappreciated within the conventional academic reward system dominated by departmentally set criteria.

My observation is that the concerns for accountability have not been as much a worry for continuing education and adult degree programs as for conventional programs. That's because these programs which are directed to a mature, usually external market groups and individuals always have expected quality and service and won't continue or come back if they don't get it! The challenge is for those of us who use faculty outside of their department to develop communication and process policies at the institution level that include the faculty member's effort in the total review process. But, now, back to faculty evaluations and various means and opportunities to do it.

Student Evaluations of Professors are a commonly used evaluative tool. Arguments are made, of course, about their quality and value. Adult program leaders

have a sense that the evaluations of their students are more credible than those of students in regular academic programs because of their maturity, their self-direction, and their expectations for service. Many professors offer similar viewpoints from their experience. Moreover, older students frequently offer more narrative or open-ended responses than younger students. In our BLS and MLS programs at Oklahoma, professors serve both as seminar co-directors and as individual student advisers where they are more tutors or mentors rather than teachers. Student evaluations from both dimensions of faculty service provide information on a broad range of faculty performance.

Peer Evaluation at the program performance level is less systematically used although peer review is central to the larger tenure and promotion procedures. In some cases, academic units may use a performance evaluation before developing course instruction or student advising assignments. For example, the Executive Committee in our College of Liberal Studies evaluates faculty members' proposals for BLS and MLS seminars and considers the professors' past performance based on student evaluations and other general assessment of work and interaction in the College and the University.

Annual Evaluation of Performance may be linked to tenure and promotion, but it is also a separate consideration appropriate for all faculty members. The "home" department usually sets the criteria for the evaluation, so programs which use faculty on a part-time or shared basis must develop mechanisms which incorporate all aspects of the faculty member's effort. For the past few years, the overload faculty member's involvement in Liberal Studies at OU has been sent to his or her home department and dean for inclusion in the annual evaluation and other appropriate evaluations. Frankly, the extent to which the information is used in the departments is mixed because the departmental criteria varies greatly. However, the Provost and the campus-wide tenure committee has noted and supported the procedure.

Faculty Awards and Honors provide occasions for faculty evaluation. The preparation of nomination materials results in much information speaking to the quality of attitude and performance of the professor. To be expected is that the information gathered for this type of purpose would be positive.

Faculty Self-appraisal can be incorporated in some situations. For example, Liberal Studies seminar directors are asked to turn in statement of evaluations of their sessions in which they speak to the extent of their personal preparation , performance and involvement. As well, of course, they usually speak of the students' performance and of their faculty codirector's performance.

Administrative or Supervisory Review Program leaders can contribute to faculty in a systematic or incidental way, hopefully, the former. In many tenure, promotion and performance review schemes, the department head, dean and other supervisor of a faculty member has direct comment for inclusion in the review portfolio. In most cases, the program administrator has a more wholistic view of the faculty member including the faculty members preparation, performance, individual and collective interaction with students, relation to program goals and activities and other activities related to performance. Again, from the viewpoint of adult programs, the program administrators evaluative remarks are important to include in the part-time faculty member's review folder and file.

These and other procedures and practices related to faculty review must take into account faculty governance issues. Faculty senates, councils or unions often play an important role in developing and operating faculty review programs. While dealing with faculty governance issues often adds complexity to the process, in the long run, there is usually more interest and credibility in the overall review process. As in any academic issue or concern, the faculty must have recognition and understanding of the processes, and hopefully, they will have positive vested interest in them.

Just as in the the case of the student, the evaluative information is of no help unless it is communicated to the faculty member. Any system of faculty evaluation must have a procedure in which the information gets back to the individual faculty member.

Evaluation of Programs

Someone has said that program evaluation and review rises to the surface during hard times I recall a period of fairly good times at my institution in the late 1970's, when the academic vice-president called for the development of a plan for financial exigency. While there was not much enthusiasm for it at the time, a task group did develop a pretty good plan which calls for an extensive review before any academic

program can be discontinued. We did not how good it was until some rough fiscal times in more recent years when the policies resulting from the plan prevented some hasty administrative actions.

Another concern which often arises is what I hear as---another president, another plan! Indeed, as the turnover of academic leaders at the president, provost and deans levels becomes more frequent, there often is the concern that program evaluation and planning will not be taken seriously over a period of time. While these and other problems and complications are acknowledged, effective program review, evaluation and planning are essential whether they arise from the unit or the institutional level. The extent to which the plans become a central, functional part of the institutional practice in large part determines their effectiveness.

The names and procedures of program review and planning schemes vary as indeed, the models for them do, too. It seems that institutions which have undergone larger, comprehensive review and planning exercises put a lot of attention on finding a unique title such as "Strategy for Excellence", "Quality in the 90's" and "Visions for Achievement." These are important ways to gain institutional commitment to the general plan. Now, here are some elements which can be used in program evaluation plans.

Program Review A model is developed in which academic units address their mission, offerings, students, alumni, faculty, administration, services, fiscal and other program operations. A standard review plan is expected for each of the academic units of the institutions. These unit reports then are reviewed within the total institutional context.

Accreditation Review Programs which have state, regional or national accreditation have interval reviews based on criteria developed by the accrediting group. Institutions themselves are accredited, as well, from a larger criteria which encompasses all of its academic programs.

Institutional Councils and Committees Many institutions have periodic review expectations of some aspects of programs or services and may require an approval process for program modifications. These exercises involve both review and planning. In many institutions, these are standing committees and provide continuity

in the review procedures. In other cases, special task force or committees will approach institutional accreditation or a special program review plan.

Assessment Plans As indicated earlier, the assessment movement particularly focusing on undergraduate education was externally motivated to great extent, but is being developed within the institution. One of the points in the assessment movement is that it goes beyond the academic classroom involving the faculty's work with students. It more broadly includes the academic support services and student development activities provided by the institution. Groups such as NACADA have given considerable attention to assessment issues in recent years.

Statistical Review If an army marches on it stomach, a college marches on it's statistics. As mentioned earlier, certainly numbers are important and certainly we have the computers crunching the numbers for us. The statistics and their accompanying charts and graphs are important tools for evaluators. The important thing is establishing a criteria determining how statistics are to be used, a criteria based on the mission and purpose of the program and its performance and quality expectations.

Peer Institution or Program Comparisons The proliferation of data within our institutions has led to another trend in program evaluation in which data from similar programs in a region or the nation are compared. While this can be helpful to some extent, there are apparent dangers in that there are program differences among institutions which may greatly affect the statistics. There is also the question in confidence in the figures, who collected them and how they were reported. At this point, I should mention how difficult it is to find any statistical information about alternative and external degree programs for adults. While many publications offer descriptive information about such programs, there does not seem to be any centralized point at which information is gathered and reported. As I say this, I realize that the criticism I have just offered about the danger in statistical reports would be the same. Indeed, there is so much variety in the nature and organization of adult degree programs that developing peer group classifications could be difficult. Still, we have past the time of need for this type of information.

Institutional Services Evaluation As mentioned in respect to assessment, a program review plan would include the range of academic services available and

necessary to support students' learning. This would include library, academic counseling, fiscal and financial aid services, and even such things as parking and child care. Other areas of concern would include the program and institutional awards and honors opportunities and access to recreational and cultural services. While an academic unit in a program review plan might frame its study around the academic effort, these other service and support efforts are important to complement and enhance it.

Alumni and Stakeholder Evaluations Alumni evaluations are reflected through structured surveys and from incidental responses in respect to satisfaction and dissatisfaction. In some cases, a tangible acknowledgement comes in the way of financial or other gifts to the program or institution. Stakeholders, those interested friends and groups such as employers, agencies, and others who rely on or use the program services and products, offer similar help in evaluation. Many institutions have found alumni boards, councils or other groups to provide helpful information that can be important in evaluation of programs.

External Evaluators In many cases, an external evaluation by an individual or a group offers perspectives unseen in internal evaluative procedures. The selection of the external evaluator is important as is clearly outlining the criteria and parameters of evaluators task.

Pulling It All Together

I started from the idea that evaluation requires attention to the performance of students, of faculty, and of the program itself. And I mentioned that these elements must be evaluated in relation to each other.

While some time could be given to outline ways in which evaluation processes could be interrelated, I will not do so. However, I will close by stating the necessity of a basic attitude or condition that must be held by those looking at evaluation plans for a program. That is, as you plan your evaluation plan, one make sure your total plan includes a range of evaluative techniques, and be sure to have the various evaluative techniques you use designed so that they can be linked other techniques. Integrating all these elements into a comprehensive evaluation plan takes particular thought and action. It pays off as we face change and and involve ourselves program planning for the future. Thank you, and good evaluating.

Who Are We Really Teaching?
(Who Is Learning?)
Creating and Using Institutional Profiles of Adult Students

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Just as traditional higher education has climbed onto the assessment bandwagon, alternative undergraduate programs now feel their own push to assess. Find out what we do well, measure it, and tell everyone. This method is commonly invoked whenever we want to justify our programs. Even though it may be effective for reassuring accreditors, the by-product is often a confusing collection of outcome variables that are only tangentially related to learning. The emphasis on outcomes overlooks the context in which education occurs. The current dissatisfaction with educational outcomes may be too narrow a focus on content and value added, while ignoring more dynamic variable of individual difference and situation.

Background

The assessment movement is often chronicled as a reaction to **external** mandates for greater accountability in educational programs. This is hardly the whole story since educational insiders were among the first to cast a critical look at contemporary educational practice. The incitement of those early reports from the mid-1980's clearly placed blame on curriculum content. *Integrity in the College Curriculum* (Association of American Colleges, 1985) and *To Reclaim a Legacy* (National Endowment for the Humanities, 1984) were the bellwethers of reform. Coupled with a new fiscal conservatism spawned by the increasing national deficit and all of its local manifestations, it was not long before assessment undeniably became Higher Education's agenda. Legislators, regulators and accreditors readily joined the assessment

movement permitting it to grow by leaps and bounds into a near frenzy of psychoeducational measurement, but the emphasis remained mainly on outcomes. Recent conferences, such as A.A.H.E. Assessment Forums sponsored by F.I.P.S.E., the University of Tennessee's Assessment Center workshops, or Alverno College's programs on outcome-based education, mark the current status of assessment efforts in higher education. The emphasis is flatly on outcomes, following the standard paradigm of comparing pre- and post-measures of academic proficiency (see Jacobi, Astin & Ayala, 1987). Gain scores are attributed to the effect of curriculum, notwithstanding the obvious confounds of maturation, regression and history (Pascarella, 1987). The result nearly always is the quantification of value-added.

Public-supported institutions have had little choice but to pursue assessment. State legislative mandates often commanded assessment of educational outcomes, thereby placing a premium on demonstration of the value-added. Their reward often was extrinsic - more money for university programs or renewal of existing funding allotments. Small privately-supported colleges and universities, already strapped by lower enrollments and higher cost for faculty salaries and campus maintenance and renovation, sometimes reluctantly joined the assessment initiative. There were few extrinsic rewards for these schools, as they were beyond the reach of legislative purse strings, but intrinsic rewards were enough to translate the earlier voices of incitement into an insistence that educational reform was justified in its own right.

We believe the dissatisfaction with academic outcomes, the basis of value-added approaches to educational measurement, was not the most salient impetus for the educational reform expressed in the assessment movement. It was already old news that baccalaureate graduates forgot much of what was offered as curricula. After all, we ask the reader to list twenty-five things learned while fulfilling general education requirements. B. F. Skinner made

this observation when he explained that education is what survives when what has been learnt has been forgotten. So however we emphasize value-added outcomes the results are assured to be disappointing by all but the relative standard of improvement.

Individual Differences

We believe instead that the reform mirrored in the assessment movement is best understood in the context of a set of questions, with the primary query being "Who are we really teaching?" and "Who is learning?," not "What are we teaching?" That these questions have also led to a reshaping of the undergraduate curriculum is in large part a by-product of finding out who are our students. If this is the case, then the early dividends of assessment are merely first-steps of a reform effort that is far from fruition. Consider some of these early contributions. There have been innovative classroom techniques (Cross & Angelo, 1988), curriculum revision (Farmer, 1988) and outcome-based models of education (Alverno Faculty, 1985). Moreover, there has surfaced a rekindled interest in higher-order cognitive skills, like critical thinking and abstract reasoning. These are undoubtedly positive steps for higher education, but the emphasis may be too narrowly limited to designing the new curricula and selecting the right outcome measures. Lacking, or at least not yet prominent, is attention to the individual difference variables that influence educational outcomes.

That the individual difference variable might be the latent impetus in the assessment movement is plausible if one considers the dramatic change in higher education demographics over the last few decades. Education, once the nearly exclusive entitlement of the wealthy and 'well-bred', has become economically and ethnically diverse. Older non-traditional students (over age 25 years) now represent upwards of forty percent of college enrollment (The Chronicle of Higher Education Almanac, 1992). Beyond demographics, significant social change has

occurred in the American system. See, for example, J. McNeil's (1985) discussion of the effect of vocational education, cultural pluralism and mainstreaming on the curriculum. The result is a more heterogenous student body than ever before facing a social institution that has historically relied on a basically singular product and delivery system. Thus, we believe the educational reform of the assessment movement may have begun with an examination of outcomes, but the analysis of process variables and interactions is ready to come on-line.

Individual differences in learning style, personality, information-processing, social-interaction, and instructional preference have all been shown to affect education choices and outcomes (see review by Claxton & Murrell, 1987). Relationships have been documented between individual difference variables and educational choice (Holland, 1966), instructional style (Witkin, 1976), academic aptitudes (McCaulley & Natter, 1980), teaching preference (Hill & Nunnery, 1973), learning strategy (Gregorc, 1979; Kolb, 1985; Pask, 1976), classroom behavior (Mann et al., 1970; Reichmann & Grasha, 1974) and scholastic outcomes (Fuhrmann & Grasha, 1983). Especially relevant is the work of those who have pioneered a taxonomy of situations, including college environments (e.g., Stern, 1970), showing that situations can account for behavior which is both measurable and meaningful. Still others have reflected upon the interaction between individuals and situations (Endler, 1983; Mischel, 1973), establishing the added predictive utility of this approach.

It is not as if individual differences have been ignored in higher education. Rather, the study of these differences just seems not to have found its place in the more recent call for accountability. This proposal takes the advice of Claxton and Murrell (1987) who call for research to illuminate the connections and interaction between style, developmental stage and epistemology. Coming full circle, it is this interaction which is the link between the student,

the curriculum and the educational outcome. To be certain, the study of individual differences is important because it can permit specification of *which* students gain under *what* conditions and *why* this student by condition interaction contributes to competency.

Institutional Profiles

We believe the problem of integrating a concept of individual differences into assessment is at least twofold: 1) there must be a reliable process for measuring individual differences and managing the resulting data; and 2) there must be an efficient and valid process for utilizing the data at institutional, faculty, and student levels. Five years ago, Capital University began developing a program for the assessment of a new competency based core curriculum and the general University Mission. An institutional commitment to the social, personal, and intellectual development of students underscored the need for a multiple measure approach. While measurements of academic proficiency could be used to validate intellectual growth, it was obvious that similar measurements of student attitudes and values would be needed to verify social and personal growth. The first part of the problem was resolved by identifying four instruments as an Assessment Battery for administration to all incoming Freshmen.

	Institution	*Faculty/Advisors*	*Students*
Academic Profile	Provides pre and post academic achievement data for inter and intra institutional comparisons.	Provides data for planning individual academic programs and developing classroom teaching strategies.	Provides data for making academic program decisions by identifying potential academic strengths and weaknesses.
Canfield LSI	Provides pre and post learning style data for intra institutional comparisons.	Provides data for planning individual academic programs and developing classroom teaching strategies.	Provides data for making academic program decisions by identifying individual learning style preferences.
Jackson JPI	Provides pre and post personality style data for intra institutional comparisons.	Provides data for developing classroom teaching strategies in light of group attitudes and values.	Provides data to facilitate liberal arts tradition of learning more about self.
Student Survey	Provides pre and post qualitative data about student attitudes, opinions, and characteristics.	Provides background data (group results only)	Provides background data (group results only)

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The Canfield Learning Style Inventory is a measure of individual preferences for conditions and ways of learning. While students may be able to learn under many different conditions, each student may express an optimal set of conditions for instruction, social interaction and information processing. Examples of conditions include working within the context of a team, setting own objectives and procedures, working within specific structures, etc. Numeric, qualitative, inanimate, and people interests are measured along with preferences for learning by listening, reading, using icons or working through direct experience. This instrument identifies the optimal set of preferences and also categorizes it into one of nine learner types. The learner can then be characterized and advised as primarily or a combination of Independent, Social, Applied, Conceptual or Neutral types. The resulting information is valuable not only for discovering how students prefer to learn, but also for making decisions when there is a possibility of matching student styles with teaching styles or optional learning conditions. At an institutional level, pre and post test administrations of the *Canfield LSI* can reveal significant changes in learning preferences; indicating perhaps a shift from social learning types to more independent learning types.

The Jackson Personality Inventory is a measure of personality traits, styles, attitudes and values. This instrument differs from other measures of personality as it is descriptive rather then diagnostic. An analysis of the scales reveals a general profile of attitudes or personal styles that reflect scales measuring anxiety, breath of interest, complexity, conformity, energy level, risk taking, responsibility, self esteem, value orthodoxy, etc. Such profiles are valuable for measuring changes in attitudes and values of students over a period of time. This information may provide interested students some insight into their own personality style and allow others to begin the traditional liberal arts process of evaluating their own attitudes and values. At an

institutional level, the *JPI* can be used as pre and post tests to reveal any significant changes in such areas as anxiety, self esteem, value orthodoxy, etc

The Academic Profile (Long Form) is a primary measure of academic proficiency. It measures student skills in the humanities, social sciences, and natural sciences, and student proficiency in college level writing, reading, math, and critical thinking. A unique feature of the instrument is that it yields two different types of results: norm-referenced scores that can be compared with scores of other students or other institutions; and criterion-referenced proficiency levels that can describe specific skills that have been demonstrated. The results can be used to help students waive a core class and thus eliminate the need to take that course. They can also be used to help advisors identify areas of competence that may be presented to the University Competency Assessment Panel (U.C.A.P) for course credit. Pre and post test administrations of the *AP* can be used for helping to detect significant changes in academic proficiency that may have occurred during the course of a college career.

The Student Survey is a qualitative measure of student self reported characteristics, values, attitudes, and opinions. The structured and unstructured questions are designed for qualitative and quantitative analyses for term and longitudinal studies. While it yields only group results, the data can be used independently or as corroboration for the more quantitative measures.

Results from the four instruments are collected, entered into an assessment data base, and used to process individual student files. Each file consists of a custom, computer generated report that describes only the significant Canfield scales. In addition, the student report form from the Academic Profile is included, along with a detailed explanation sheet. Completed

student files are then distributed to the appropriate academic advisors. Each advisor discusses the results with their advisees and uses the information to help plan academic programs.

Once individual student assessment data has been reported and entered into a database for management, the problem of integrating the data into the assessment process becomes apparent. Initially at Capital University, a one page summary with graphics and jargon free text is distributed to the campus community to illustrate various descriptive findings about the current class of incoming traditional and Adult Degree students. Shortly thereafter, the results from *The Senior Survey* are released to complete a class or institutional profile. This institutional profile is the basis for answering the question of who are we teaching and ultimately the more important question of which students gain under what conditions and why.

As an example of how individual differences can be used to construct an institutional profile, assessment results from 128 Adult Degree students who entered Capital University in 1992 were selected from the Assessment Database. The majority of students in the ADP sample were Independent learners as identified by the *LSI*. One fourth of the students were Social learners. The students expressed a preference for clearly organized coursework and meaningful assignments but they did not prefer teamwork, good relations with friends, or friendly instructors. On the *Jackson JPI*, students valued traditional customs and beliefs, and endorsed conservative or conventional behavior. The typical student was orderly and disciplined, responsible and dependable, self assured and composed, but not particularly complex, intellectual, or analytical. An analysis of the norm referenced portions of the *Academic Profile* revealed that there was no significant difference between the mean scores of entering Capital ADP students and a national sample of entering traditional Freshmen. Results from the criterion referenced portion suggested that in Reading/Critical Thinking, fewer than 6% of the students

were found at the <1 proficiency level which was associated with substandard post-secondary skills. In Math and Writing, over 15% were found at this level. However in all three areas, approximately 10% of the students demonstrated Level 3 proficiencies which was associated with college level mastery. Therefore, our non-traditional students exhibited similar levels of college readiness as our traditional students. The difference between the groups was a difference of personality and learning preferences. Results from *The Student Survey* tended to corroborate these findings in that students primarily characterized themselves as well organized, confident, independent, and concerned with receiving a degree.

From this basic institutional profile it is possible to verify the often held assumptions that the majority of incoming Adult students were : 1) Independent types of learners and that a self directed learning philosophy could apply to most, but not all ADP students; 2) likely to be confident, well organized, curious, and interested in having institutional expectations clearly articulated; and 3) as well prepared in terms of basic academic proficiencies as incoming Traditional students. Later, more detailed analyses are conducted to compare profiles by gender, centers, age, etc. At this time current research questions can be pursued in such areas as traditional and adult student comparisons, etc. Finally the data that composes the profile is stored and used in a longitudinal study of the university program or mission. When comparisons are conducted with pre and post measures it is possible to detect significant changes in learning style, personality style, academic proficiencies, and opinions that could indicate the type of personal and academic growth that Capital's Adult Degree Program purports to facilitate.

In the end, assessment must become a question of Who? rather than What? While it may be gratifying to review gain score data, the nagging doubt still remains as to who are we really teaching and who is learning. Once assessment is placed within the context of individual

differences, the answers may not be immediately apparent. However the process capable of yielding such answers, indeed the same process associated with the creation of institutional profiles, can and will begin to evolve.

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TRACK B:

REVIEWING AND RENEWING THE CURRICULUM

EXPLORING OUR HORIZONS: CONCEPTIONS OF SELF, KNOWLEDGE, AND CURRICULUM IN ADULT DEGREE PROGRAMS

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Abstract: Two separate approaches to the construction of curricula are proposed. The first and most traditional approach is primarily knowledge-centered. The second approach, frequently employed by practitioners in adult degree programs, is primarily learner-centered. While these alternative approaches to the task of curriculum construction arose largely in practice settings out of our commitment to serve adult learners, a body of theoretical literature supportive of our practice has also evolved. One such model of curriculum theorizing, contrasting the literal and metaphysical approaches, is considered. Curriculum construction utilizing the literal approach is primarily analytical, sequential, and compartmental. Curriculum construction utilizing the metaphysical approach is primarily meditative, and a process in which great store is placed in imagination and insight, and the use of metaphor.

Introduction

As is the case for many of us, I have been engaged for a number of years in the practice of what is usually referred to as "non-traditional" or "alternative" higher education. Admittedly, this umbrella shelters many disparate programs. Yet, contained under it are many individuals who are constructing, in the context of their professional practice, what they regard as alternatives to traditional conceptions of the experience of teaching and learning with which we are so familiar.

Since many of us have engaged with our students one-on-one in highly individualized baccalaureate degree programs, what is becoming increasingly clear is that we are operating from distinctly different conceptions of knowledge, and of the practice of developing curricula. Our professional practice gives evidence that our approach to the task of curriculum construction is very different from that utilized by our more traditional colleagues.

This paper will focus on what I believe to be an emerging consensus among practitioners in our field around a model of curriculum construction reflecting the differences between traditional and alternative degree programs. The nature of this consensus was described as "Alternative Approaches to Curricular Coherence," (Michelson, Kiskis, Smirni, & Schneider), in a workshop at the 1991 AAHE National Conference on Higher Education in Washington, D.C. A portion of the

emerging body of theoretical literature which supports these alternative approaches developed in practice settings will further illustrate the perspective presented here. The paper will conclude with some reflections on the relationship of these theories to practice settings.

Two Conceptions of Curriculum

As a way of making this distinction clearer, I would like to propose two separate ways of conceiving of a curriculum. A rough approximation of these alternatives is contained in the illustrations below:

The illustration on the left represents the more traditional or knowledge-centered approach to curriculum construction. A typical baccalaureate curriculum is developed around academic disciplines or majors. A sequence of study is then planned usually consisting of a number of courses and other structured learning experiences. These experiences are intended to expose the prospective student to a body of knowledge and, occasionally, a set of practices. The courses are organized in a sequence from simple to complex, with the presumption being that those who are exposed to such content will have little related experience with the material. After a suitable period of exposure, it is presumed that the student will then be prepared to engage in further study or practice in this field. What should also be clear, when this illustration is examined more closely, is that the role of (any) individuals is unspecified--the identities and roles of knowledge creaters, conceivers and delivers of curriculum, and intended learners remain anonymous. In this illustration, the curriculum is conceived of as separate and apart from individual conceptions of it, and the body of knowledge is the primary reference point.

Although we know, in reality, that knowledge is nothing if not social, and that knowledge is created and curricula are constructed by individuals, appearances can be very deceiving in both the short- and long-term. This

deception can have profound consequences for how learners come to understand what knowledge is, and for how they differentiate between knowledge creation and its dissemination if they do so at all.

The illustration on the right is intended to represent a more learner-centered approach to the practice of constructing curricula. It fairly accurately depicts the actual approach to curriculum design utilized by practitioners in adult degree programs. What should be immediately apparent is that the individual learner is at the center of this conception; the construction of curriculum is guided by the interests, intentions, and aspirations of the individual who will engage in this course of study. The learning each individual engages in is intended to provide a better and more substantive understanding of self and others, to foster more effective relationships with family and community, and to better prepare the individual to make a meaningful and purposeful contribution to the world. As each individual negotiates that distance between self and world, the primary assumption is that since the individual context is unique, the content of that negotiation should also be uniquely suited to the individual's own search for meaning and purpose. It should also be noted that while this process of curriculum construction is facilitated by a practitioner, the actual task of clarifying interests, intentions, and aspirations is one that is usually engaged in very actively by the learner. When it is required, an adept facilitator will frequently be able to move learners away from the limitations of the "felt needs" approach through both dialogue and guided inquiry into the basis for interests, intentions, and their relationship to aspirations, through the skilled construction of curriculum.

As is the case with most characterizations, these two conceptions of curriculum construction are not infrequently diluted in practice. Many educators who advise students in traditional programs regularly attempt to tailor a program more closely to an individual student's interests than would be imagined in the more traditional conception of curriculum. It is also true that advisors of students in alternative degree programs will sometimes attempt to approximate more traditional approaches to curriculum design, particularly when this strategy meets needs expressed by the student, such as the intention to enroll in a very

structured graduate program. These practices are not undesirable in reality; it is the mark of good academic advising that any system can be shaped to meet clearly identified needs. Nevertheless, these alternative views contain more than a kernel of a particular kind of truth. The approach to curriculum construction utilized by many adult degree programs illustrates not just our approach to curriculum but our definition of knowledge as well. This issue will be examined more closely in the section which follows.

Curriculum Construction in Adult Degree Programs

The previously cited workshop, "Beyond the Core: Alternative Approaches to Curricular Coherence" (Michelson, Kiskis, Smirni, & Schneider, 1991), at which three of the four presenters were affiliated with Empire State College in New York, articulated an approach to curriculum construction which parallels, to a considerable degree, the second, learner-centered approach illustrated above. In defending this approach, the argument made in the workshop is that we should consider the position that "there is no fixed body of knowledge or curriculum which predates an individual's entry into the institution" [emphasis added]. What is also implied by such a position is that there may be "no fixed hierarchy of value" [emphasis added] in how, when, and whether a student engages in a particular ordered sequence of study. That is not to say that no knowledge exists prior to a student's beginning a course of study, but rather that a curriculum can and should be designed around that which a student brings into the experience at the point of entry. If coherence is an intended outcome of an educational experience, what coheres? Does the curriculum cohere, and if so around what principles? If coherence is more frequently understood as an individual construct, how can we be certain that our understandings of the ways in which a traditional curriculum coheres are really shared by the individuals for whom it was intended, if it does so at all?

The position articulated by our colleagues at Empire State College is clearly at variance with traditional practice, or the knowledge-centered approach to curriculum construction, and the experience of teaching and learning which evolves from this approach. Nevertheless, these practitioners articulated an approach to curriculum construction which is frequently employed in adult degree

programs, and often for reasons other than the most typical and obvious which is that adult students often possess a significant backlog of potentially relevant experience. This distinction is more than arbitrary since our conception of what knowledge is, and how it should be configured in the context of an individual life, is illustrated by our practice.

As I have noted earlier, since many of us enjoy the relative luxury of dealing with our students either one-on-one, or in relatively small numbers, questions about the importance of a "core" curriculum in a baccalaureate degree, or the "foundations" of a particular field of study are neither abstract, nor the focus of our conversations on a university curriculum committee. These concerns are at the very center of the dialogue engaged in with each of our students about the content of their programs, and the relevance of these concerns for their lives. It is a measure of our success with individual students, in fact, when they begin to engage with these issues themselves in the context of their own curriculum planning.

What is also clear to many of us is that the field of alternative higher education arose over time primarily out of rather divergent practice settings, out of the gradual recognition among practitioners of shared values and intentions, and from the most typical characteristics of the population we served. The recognition of theoretical approaches within the context of our work, or of existing theory which was supportive of this work, has come, for the most part, much later. The presenters from Empire State College also made this point when they noted that while those "in the trenches" had not waited for this eventuality, the theoretical defense of this approach to understanding both curriculum, and the concept of coherence, "was gaining on us." Developments in the discipline of philosophy in the last two decades, in particular, support the approach to curricula which is illustrated by our practice, and can inform that practice in meaningful ways.

Exploring a Theoretical Approach to Our Practice

James Macdonald examines these issues as well in "How Literal is Curriculum Theory?" (1982), an article on the experience of curriculum inquiry. He elaborates on two approaches to curriculum theorizing which parallel the

distinctions developed earlier in ways which are both helpful and relevant to this topic.

Macdonald describes the first, and most traditional and frequently utilized, conception of curriculum theorizing as the literal approach, or the search for order. Such theorists frequently "see theory as a literal picture of the phenomena they wish to explain" (p. 55). He observes that "literal approaches to theory tend to claim scientific and/or technical status and are focused almost entirely upon instrumental purposes such as prediction, explanation, and control" (pp. 55). Curriculum construction utilizing the literal approach is primarily analytical, sequential, and compartmental.

Macdonald's second conception of curriculum theorizing is characterized as the metaphysical approach, or the search for meaning. He describes "metaphysical approaches ... [as] holistic, philosophical, and poetic[,] and focused upon expressive purposes leading to constantly revising phenomena to create new interpretations and greater understanding" (p. 55). Constructing curriculum utilizing the poetic and metaphysical approach is primarily meditative, and a process in which great store is placed on imagination and insight, and the use of metaphor. While these conceptions are worthy of a more extensive treatment than this context allows, I will attempt to characterize his remarks in an intelligible and relevant way.

Macdonald suggests that the tension between these two approaches exists not only in the field of curriculum theory but also "in the intellectual climate of society" which "reflects C. P. Snow's 'two cultures,' Science and the Humanities" (p. 55). It also reflects "a division in the human psyche between a 'nothing but' rational conception of the world and a 'more than' rational view. He draws on the work of Philip Slater (1977), who suggests that the "essence of what we call rational thought is leaving out things--gut sensations, feelings, impulses to act" (Slater in Macdonald, p. 55). Rational thought also leaves out

> the thinker, his or her unique horizon or place in the universe, with its associated urges, feelings, and impulses. [emphasis added] The main purpose of rational thought is to explain things so that we may predict and control them. Explain means to ex-plain or 'flatten out' (p. 55).

It is worth noting here, since many of us have considerable experience with

critical theory, that Macdonald includes two of Jurgen Habermas' three paradigms described in the Appendix to Knowledge and Human Interests (1972) in the first approach. These paradigms include the empirical-analytic in which the primary interest is to explain the world, the historical-hermeneutic (also referred to as situational-interpretive) in which the primary interest is to understand the world, and the critical-theoretical in which the primary interest served is to change the world.

Thus, from Macdonald's perspective, if the search for order is undertaken as a way of explaining, and ultimately controlling, reality, then the results of such inquiry, and the theory (knowledge) which results, will be conceived of as rational and literal representations of reality as it is. Even if the search for order is conceived of as being guided by primarily emancipatory interests, then the resulting representations will be guided both by reality as it is (conceived to be) and as it could be. In any case, the intended outcome of emancipatory interests is a more favorable reality. Ted Aoki, a Canadian art educator who has also drawn on the work of Habermas in his writing on curriculum inquiry, has suggested that the implicit assumption about reality underlying the construction of causal explanations is that reality can be explained. The corresponding assumption underlying the emancipatory framework is that reality can be changed (Aoki, 1979, p. 13-15). Macdonald observes that both of these paradigms have "an optimistic buoyancy that suggests we can create and/or control ourselves, our relationships, and the world" (p. 56).

Macdonald's second approach to the task of curriculum construction is that of the search for meaning, a conception which is inescapably person-centered and humanist in orientation, and in which individual horizons are immediately recognizable. Rather than seeing theory and practice as separate arenas, Macdonald regards theory as the way in which individual human beings come to know the world with increasing sophistication. Theory is also understood in a more metaphorical sense, rather than as a literal representation of reality. Theory and practice are united in the hermeneutic circle of interpretation and re-interpretation through which individuals experience meaning. Rather than testing the adequacy of our theory by whether or not it works (in a separate context),

we alter our mis-understandings about the nature of reality through the creation of more meaningful understandings, or the reduction of our illusions about the meaning of our experience. Like the adult degree programs we create, an individual human life is seen as the context in which all of this activity occurs--action, reflection, and the interpretation and re-interpretation of experience in subjectively meaningful ways--and the context in which a meaningful curriculum can be constructed. Theory is experienced as a

> participatory phenomenon, where the person engages in dialogue with the theory, bringing each person's biography and value to the interpretation. The intention is not to explain (flatten out) for control purposes, but to reinterpret in order to provide greater grounding for understanding (Macdonald, 1982, p. 56).

This conception of curriculum inquiry also corresponds to the remainder of the paradigms attributable to Habermas, in which understanding (*verstehen*) is the interest served. Returning to the framework Aoki utilized, in this paradigm reality is ultimately mysterious, although human beings can achieve much by way of understanding, and through the reduction of illusions (1979, p. 13-15).

Conclusion

While a great deal more could be said about the ways in which curriculum theorizing can inform our practice, several points are especially noteworthy. I was impressed by Macdonald's discussion of the difference between the "'nothing but' rational conception of the world and a 'more than' rational view" (p. 55), and the way in which rational thought leaves things out. This distinction also applies when comparing our work to that of traditional educators. The practice of assessing experiential learning, in particular, immerses both learner and practitioner in the rich texture of human experience in which valuable knowledge often comes at high personal cost, although only the (rational) knowledge itself is valued in academic settings. In the practice of prior learning assessment what is also frequently left out, or valued to a lesser degree, is the context in which the learning was acquired. Since this is so typically the case in traditional practice, to the detriment of learners' more complete understanding of the experience of knowledge creation, even including much detail about context in student narratives is seen as unnecessary and irrelevant.

Adult degree programs have a redemptive quality that is not always

recognized by our more traditional colleagues. The decision to return to school often represents so much more than a desire to attend classes or to acquire knowledge in an additive sense. For many adults, education serves as a vehicle for deepening their understanding of self and others, as well as for increasing their capacity to engage in satisfying work. As facilitators of such a process, practitioners must become adept at constructing curricula which give form and shape to these very personal searches for meaning and purpose. As Macdonald described it, this experience of curriculum construction is, indeed, "a participatory phenomenon," and one in which "each person's biography and value [is brought] to the interpretation" (1982, p. 55).

While the importance of the search for order in curriculum theorizing should not be underestimated, the prevalence of pre-existing curricula with large numbers of numbers of required general education and major courses has served to leave learners and educators alike with the mistaken impression that this is the only legitimate way to organize both knowledge and the related experience of teaching and learning. Developing these alternative conceptions of curriculum construction, in particular, can serve as a vehicle for examining how the practice of assessing prior experiential learning can play an educative role within the context of such a pre-existing curriculum. The practice of assessing that learning which adults acquire through their experience prior to beginning a course of study can serve as a bridge between an "individual's own horizon or place in the universe," as Macdonald described it, and the larger world of academic discourse the adult is about to enter. One of my recent students who had completed a portfolio used the metaphor of map-reading in planning a journey to describe the relationship between assessing experiential learning and planning a degree program. When reading a map it is necessary to know where one is located before planning the route to an eventual destination. He had instinctively recognized, through his own experience of prior learning assessment in an adult degree program, the value of locating his own "place in the universe" before beginning further study. This instinctive recognition also led practitioners to create what have become enormously valuable and viable educational alternatives for adult students for reasons we may not have anticipated when we began.

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ACHIEVING THE PURPOSES OF LIBERAL ARTS EDUCATION: A DEVELOPMENTAL APPROACH

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Events last spring in Los Angeles in response to the "not guilty" verdict in the Rodney King case, taking place in a intense election year and at a time when thoughts are easily drawn to the looming reality of the 21st century, symbolized for me the social context that surrounds my work in higher education. Words of Henry Giroux which inspired me when I first encountered them five years ago remind me of the deeper questions I must keep in mind:

> In my view, a more suitable model [of education] can be developed around a public philosophy that links the purpose of higher education to the development of forms of knowledge and moral character in which citizenship is defined as an ethical compact, not a commercial contract, and empowerment is related to forms of literacy and civic courage that encourage people to participate critically in shaping public life. (1987)

Giroux' call to envision education as a way to establish citizenship as an "ethical compact" between the individual and society is similar to Ernest Boyer's conclusion the same year in his report for the Carnegie Foundation:

> Just as we search culturally to maintain the necessary balance between private and public obligations, in education, we seek the same end. The college, at its best, recognizes that, although we live alone, we also are deeply dependent on each other. Through an effective college education, students should become personally empowered and also committed to the common good. (1987, 69)

Developing personal empowerment and a commitment to the common good--in other words, some sense of social responsibility and enough of a feeling of personal power to act on behalf of one's beliefs and values--Boyer calls the "two essential goals of undergraduate education." In my estimation, they should be seen as two essential goals of all education for they are necessary for meeting the challenges of our collective future.

When we speak of empowerment and social responsibility we are speaking, not of specific learning objectives such as becoming conversant with or mastering a particular body of information or developing a skill; rather we are speaking of the development of characteristics, qualities, or attributes that exist (or fail to exist) on deep level in any given individual--in Giroux' words, "forms of literacy and civic courage that encourage people to participate actively in shaping public life."

These words can be mere slogans: to take them seriously is to envision a radical change in our institutions of higher learning. It means making our educational institutions congruent with our commitment as a nation to democracy, no less a radical concept than when this nation was founded; certainly a more complex and difficult one than this country's founders envisioned. There is a huge gulf, however, between articulating these as goals and having confidence as educators that we

actually accomplish them. Spanning this gulf, however, is our role. To do it well we must consider the abilities that lead to empowerment and social responsibility and identify the learning tasks that develop them.

Through my work and discussions with students about these issues, a model of learning and knowing has taken shape that helps me begin to do just that. It is a model of epistemological developmental inspired by the work of Belenky, et.al. in **Women's Ways of Knowing** and by David Kolb's work on experiential learning. I propose this model as a tool to stimulate reflection and discussion of the values, images and intentions we, as educators, carry into our work, and the methods and and strategies we use to implement them. What follows is a preliminary conceptualization; I invite critique, feedback and comments to help refine it.

Empowerment and Social Responsibility: Two Essential Goals of Democracy

It seems quite important that Boyer called upon higher education to hold empowerment and social responsibility as the goals toward which undergraduate education should be directed. Empowerment itself is not enough to build the kind of society needed. People can be empowered to be all kind of things: fascists, racists, greedy CEOs, corrupt politicians, or narrowly specialized "experts." Neither is social responsibility, by itself, enough. People can have their compassion and sense of justice awakened but be too weak, too discouraged to do anything about it. They can also act, solely from their compassion, and create social structures that do not have the effect they are intended to have. They can hold their sense of social responsibility like a banner and become self-righteous and intolerant of others. Taken together, however, empowerment and social responsibility are essential to democracy. To develop them, I propose, requires strategies that involve the *whole person* in his or her education. By examining the way in which the goals of empowerment and social responsibility might be served by a *whole-person* developmental approach to education, we gain clues about how to do this.

Empowerment requires having a voice with which to speak. Having a voice requires having an identity to speak from. Empowerment requires the ability to see oneself as an actor, an agent of action in the world. These things require the development of the subjective sense of self and a relationship between that self and the world. The formation of the self, a personal identity, requires developing a subjective sense of knowledge, a self that knows that it knows. Subjective knowledge is a kind of intuitive knowledge. Despite Descartes, most of us, I suspect, find a more intuitive basis for basis for believing in our existence. We "just know" we exist.

A strong sense of personal identity, although necessary for empowerment, is not sufficient by itself. Empowerment also implies an active relationship with the world outside oneself. Developing such a relationship requires a history of experiences in which one sees oneself as having power to act or express oneself in the world. The ability to access reason, the tool for stepping out

of the self and claiming one's knowledge within the sphere of the outside world and outside sources of knowledge seems a key ingredient in building such a *public*, more objective identity. Full empowerment then, requires a bringing together, an integration, of one's personal and public identities--identities developed through subjective and objective ways of knowing.

Social responsibility can be seen as the outer expression of empowerment within a values framework, an incorporation of the ethical dimension of human consciousness. To develop a sense of social responsibility requires the awakening and engagement of ethical considerations. On one hand, this requires the tools of the intellect, the ability to probe beneath the surface of things in order to see the principles at stake. On the other hand, social responsibility requires the development of compassion, a sense of connection with others that is developed through one's feelings, through one's heart. Social responsibility gives direction to empowered action.

Holding empowerment and social responsibility together as "two essential goals" of education requires then an education which creates a sense of active relationship between the inner self and the world. It is the integration of the political, and social dimensions of humanness and its emotional and spiritual dimensions. It requires the active participation of the whole self--the integration of head, heart and hand. It requires an active relationship between thinking, feeling and doing. To gain an image of how to foster this active relationship through educational practice, experiential learning theory described by David Kolb is a useful starting point.

Experiential Learning

In **Experiential Learning,** David Kolb builds a model of human learning as human development. Kolb pictures human learning at its optimum as a dynamic, interactive process between the individual and the world. Information, including subjective information, from all the events and experiences that comprise our lives, flows continually into us, is processed by us into new knowledge in interaction with our previous store of knowledge and, in turn, flows back out into the world as action. In this way, human learning can be seen as an act of engagement with the world, the basic human transaction that links the individual with the world outside. "Learning is," he says, "a the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience." (1984, 38) He goes on to say:

> . . . [K]nowledge is a transformative process, being continuously created and recreated, not an independent entity to be acquired or transmitted. Third, learning transforms experience in both its objective and subjective forms. Finally, to understand learning, we must understand the nature of knowledge, and vice versa. (1984)

From this foundation, Kolb goes on to describe a model of the process of experiential learning and from there describes the structure of that process. It is that structure that is of particular importance here. Kolb describes it as including two sets of dialectically opposed modes, one of perception and one of adaptation to the world. The polar opposites in the perception

dimension are between *comprehension* and *apprehension*. The second dimension, the *transformation* dimension, includes two opposed ways of interacting with what one takes into oneself of the world. Kolb sees this polarity as internal reflection, or *intention*, and "active manipulation of the external world," what he calls *extension*. (1984, 40-41).

Through this picture of the structure of the process of experiential learning we gain a better grasp of the more subtle dimensions of learning. The suggestion is that somehow by living in the tension between the concrete and the abstract, between intuition and reason, apprehension and comprehension and by living in the tension between reflection and action, inner experience and the external world, transformation occurs--something comes into being that was not there before.

Kolb's model also suggests that the tension must be strong enough between two polarities in the dialectic for its full potential to be realized, for transformation to occur. Therefore, for learning to serve development as fully as it might, each aspect of each dimension must be fully developed. That is not to say that some level of learning can not occur whether or not each mode is fully developed. It does suggest, however, that the full *creative* power of learning can not come into play until they are. This is all very difficult territory to explore on an abstract level.

An illustration seems useful. Take a "mundane" example. Imagine a chid, two or three years old, playing on the floor with wooden blocks. The child is playing with them rather randomly, piling some up, setting some alongside others. In the randomness of her actions, she has created a modest tower of blocks. Excitedly, she gets up, inadvertently bumping the bottom block with her foot. She is startled that the tower has suddenly become a pile of blocks. Troubled, she rebuilds the tower, this time with greater intentionality. She gazes at the tower, looks around, and self-consciously reaches forward and removes a bottom block, causing the tower to crash. She laughs delightedly at her accomplishment, goes to get her mother, and repeats her performance with an audience.

Both apprehension (the "Aha" experience) and comprehension (if I do this, that will happen) take place simultaneously, or in rapid succession, in this illustration. In the same way, inner-directed reflection and external-directed action are both fully at work. With each of these faculties fully engaged, the learning that occurs is transformative, that is, the child and her environment will never be the same.

At the completion of this full and complete learning cycle, the child has a very new and different *relationship* with her world. Her sense of *identity* is transformed--she has become a person who can make a pile of blocks fall down. Thus, she has **power**. She can amuse herself; she can amuse others. She has developed a sense of **agency**; she can enact her power in the world. She also has stored, inside herself, the **idea**, a principle, an abstraction, of what has happened. By carrying this idea, she is a different person than she has ever been before. She now has the capacity to test this principle in a new setting, with different materials.

In this way, experiential learning, or what I prefer to call *active, whole-person learning*, is the means by which individuals create their lives and transform the world. The extent to which these faculties are well-developed is the extent to which transformation can occur. With full development, we can imagine, life becomes a transformative process. Most of us are lucky if we get a brief glimpse of the full power of this level of transformation. There is a mystical quality to it.

I was lucky enough to have such a glimpse when I was learning to play softball. As an example, I think it helps illustrate what I mean by *active, whole-person learning*. There I was, playing second base, a hard grounder hit to me. One of two things happen, in both I hear the voices of my coaches from hours of practice. "Don't let the ball play you, you play the ball." "Get down!" "Keep your eye on the ball." In one instance, I hear those words loudly and find myself trying to do each of those tasks; I am concentrating on the task of catching the ball. I am functioning on a level of *comprehension*. I fumble the ball. In the second instance, the words play in the back of my consciousness like an old record. My concentration, however, is centered on the ball. My whole awareness is the ball coming at me in what seems like incredible slow motion. I have stepped into some kind of "cosmic event" where I and the ball each have our parts to play; we're interconnected somehow, united through some unseen force. The catch and throw to first are made flawlessly. Somehow, in that instant, my faculties of *comprehension and apprehension* are fully engaged as are my *will*, my *intention* and my action, the *extension* of me into the world. At that moment, I have *learned* the essence of fielding in softball. From that moment on, I will always *know* what it is I am aiming for every time I go on the softball field. I have never seen the world in quite the same way after that. This, to me, is the essence of active, whole-person learning.

Learning and Knowing

In discussing the relationship between learning and knowledge, Kolb comments:

> It is surprising that few learning and cognitive researchers other than Piaget have recognized the intimate relationship between learning and knowledge and hence recognized the need for epistemological as well as psychological inquiry into these related processes. (37)

Thank goodness for Kolb! This relationship has always seemed obvious to me yet so seldom explored, much less applied. In most educational practice, the prevailing model is what Paulo Freire terms "banking education" (1990). Learning is the process whereby knowledge (that seems somehow to exist separate and apart from human consciousness) is "deposited" in human minds. In that way of thinking, knowledge is an object; it is therefore lifeless.

The deadening effect of much of our education, and how little it takes to enliven it, was illustrated to me for the first time as a basic skills instructor in adult basic education. I tutored students in math. As I observed a number of students over time, I began to notice a pattern. Students who could not do the most simple addition and subtraction, even one who could not *count*

past twenty or so, when posed math problems involving money, could carry out complex operations. With abstract numbers, disconnected from their experience, students could not maintain enough of a sense of relationship to hold on to the information required to perform mathematical operations. The same numbers, brought into the realm of their experience, evoked a sense of relationship, and so they could hold onto information and know how and when to use it. Information had become knowledge.

Based on their research with women, the author's of **Women's Ways of Knowing** proposed a preliminary conceptualization of women's epistemological development that included the following "stages:" Silence, Received Knowledge, Subjective Knowledge, Procedural Knowledge (including separate and connected knowledge) and Constructed Knowledge. As a colleague and I worked with this scheme, we began to see in it an interesting pattern--parallel paths of epistemological development in two realms, the objective and subjective, leading to a fuller, more integrated way of knowing.

In our conceptualization of Belenky's developmental scheme (Finley and Kusnic, 1987), we saw in each of these realms of knowing a continuum of *learning* skills and abilities required to access and create knowledge at different levels in each realm. Thus, in the objective realm, the continuum extends from "received" learning (similar to Freire's concept of "banking education") to some level of "separate," more abstract, conceptual learning . In the subjective realm, the continuum ranges from "subjective" learning to "connected" learning. The third category we called "integrated" learning," a term that seemed to capture better the optimal *direction* of adult development. In our earlier work, we concluded that integrated learning:

> . . . implies a constant moving back and forth between each of the other two ways of knowing [subjective and objective]. It implies standing on a ground large enough to include each of the other two and to use knowledge gained through one source to inform knowledge in the other domain. In our estimation, it is the quintessential integration of theory and practice.

Knowledge derived through learning in this realm is knowledge of the world and of the self; it is knowledge gained in interaction with the world and in interaction with the self.

This work was exciting because it placed concepts of psychological development--identity, voice, autonomy, relationship, and integrity--in an epistemological frame through which to understand better how such capacities as agency, efficacy and empowerment--philosophical concepts that represent important human qualities--are developed in an individual. Thus, a clearer understanding of the tasks and skills of adult development begins to provide a basis for creating an educational practice that serves the process of adult development and with it, the development of empowerment and social responsibility, vital qualities of democratic citizens.

A Model of Active, Whole-Person Learning and Knowing

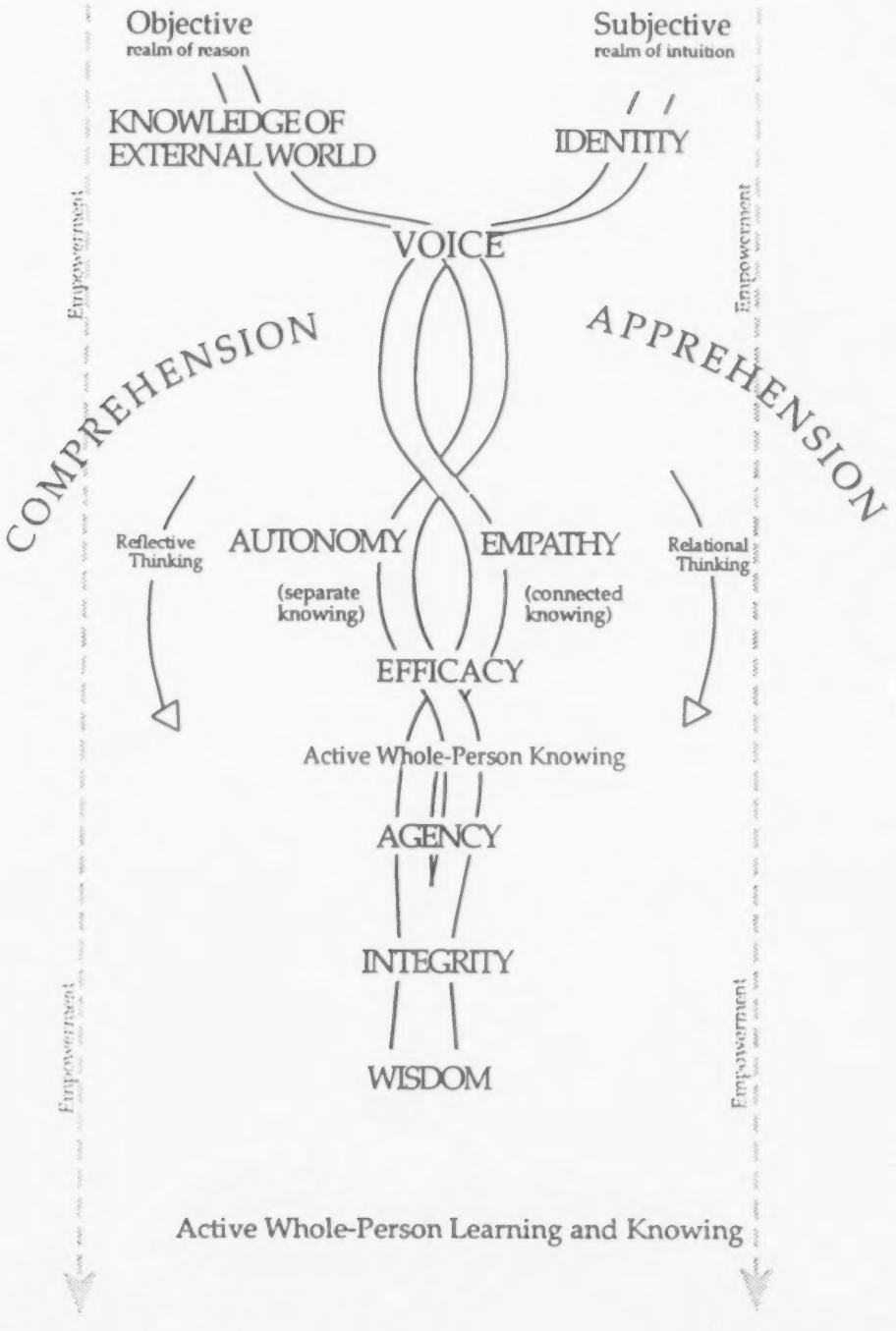
The original model we envisioned to represent this territory was useful, but never completely satisfactory because it didn't convey movement or capture the dynamism of epistemological development. Subsequent conversations with students helped me envision a slightly different model (see next page).

In this model, the two realms of knowing, objective and subjective, are seen as two strands of epistemological development, which, if both are active and learning is occurring in each, begin to weave together into a common thread. The development of *identity* is in the province of the subjective; basic knowledge of the external world is in the province of the objective. When both are at least rudimentarily established, the individual develops his or her *voice*, the ability to make oneself heard in the world. Without consciousness or awareness of the self, there is no subjective knowing. Without a basic understanding of the world outside oneself, there is no objective knowing.

The next stage of development in the objective realm is "separate knowing," the development of the tools of reason, of comprehension, of abstract thinking. A sense of *autonomy* comes into being through separate knowing, the ability to see oneself as a separate individual. Autonomy suggests a separateness, the ability to stand alone *in the external world*. On the other side of knowing, the subjective realm, development proceeds to "connected knowing," the development of *empathy* as a tool of knowing. With the development of empathy comes a sense of *relationship*, the ability to see oneself connected to others and to a larger web of life. The development of these two opposite capacities creates the conditions for the development of *efficacy*, the ability to see the effects of one's actions on others and on the world. Because one has empathy as a tool of knowing (the tool of "connected knowing"), one is able to judge one's actions on the basis of other people's experience of those actions. Because one has developed an ability to think abstractly (the central feature of "separate knowing"), one is able to discern what it is that has been effective.

The force that drives this flow of development is the same as Kolb ascribes to it in experiential learning theory--the dialectic--the force that comes into being through the tension of opposites, transforms a system, and raises things to a higher level of organization. Thus, at the first level of development posed in this model (at the top of the drawing), the two opposites, knowledge of the self and knowledge of the external world, when both fully developed, *voice* comes into being. At the next level, with reason and intuition each developed, efficacy comes into being.

From this point, the two strands are inextricably intertwined although subsequent transformation still requires further development in each realm to maintain the tension of opposites required of the dialectic. In this model, however, I have not identified the subsequent tasks as belonging to either the subjective or objective realms. My image is that by the next stage, what I



Active Whole-Person Learning and Knowing

term "active, whole-person knowing," the objective and subjective have become integrated, or at least the movement between them is so rapid as to make it difficult to discern the separate strands. When knowing has reached this stage of development, it is a capacity for *agency* that emerges--the ability to see oneself as an actor in the world, one who is able to influence events in the world. Although quite similar to efficacy, agency suggests a deeper level of power and greater integration of the self and the world.

As the deepest level of knowing in this model is wisdom. Wisdom requires that knowing through the subjective and objective realms act in tandem. Development in the subjective realm is development of one's ability to *apprehend* knowledge; it is the strengthening of intuition. The subjective realm is the realm of the heart. Through the heart, one reaches the soul. Development in the objective realm, on the other hand, is the realm of the mind and requires the strengthening of the capacity for reason. Through the mind, one reaches the spirit. Wisdom, we might then say, requires both reason and intuition to be fully active and totally open as channels of knowing. It is where the spirit and the soul become one. Integrity is the ground of being at this stage.

There is one final attribute or capacity to examine in this context: empowerment. When creating with this model, I could not find figure out where to place *empowerment*. Soon I realized empowerment is not a quality or attribute, but as a process, something that comes into being when the dynamic of this developmental process is active. Thus, empowerment seems to be the outcome of the movement of development at any stage in the model.

Implications for Practice

Again, this model is a picture of the optimal development of individuals, a developmental path that occurs when nothing intervenes to hinder the process and when environmental supports exist (education and family life for the most part) to assist the process. When learning can be fostered such that its full potential is realized, energy is released from the transformative (dialectical) process that fuels additional creative learning. When it is not, however, development ceases or slows.

Unfortunately, it appears that is often the case. From this developmental perspective, the question that arises for educators of adults is how to create conditions that re-activate development when it has been blocked or stopped. The question for educators of children is how to create conditions that stimulate and support development in each dimension so that blockage does not occur or, if it has, how to re-activate it.

Jungian psychology suggests that what is required for the dialectical process to occur is the development of undeveloped parts of oneself. As one develops those un- or under- developed parts the necessary tension is reached for the dialectical process to occur and consciousness can shift into the next level of organization. In this transformative process, energy seems to be released--the

energy of empowerment, the energy that can carry action. Jungian psychology suggests further that optimal human development is the process of increasing wholeness in an individual. As time goes on in one's life, that which has not been developed begins to demand attention. Thus, according to this perspective, there is an inner mechanism that drives development, if only we can be open to it and allow it to work.

In educational practice with adults, I have often seen this process at work. It is most striking as a common (although definitely not universal) gender difference. For a woman who has been primarily a care-taker, living in a world of subjective and intuitive knowing, the call comes to develop her reason, to develop a separate identity, one not dependent on her relationships. For a man who has developed a strong persona, an identity in the world, the call comes to develop the "softer" parts of himself--those cultivated by relationship with others (empathy, compassion) and with the universe (intuition); inner experience becomes more important. By following these inner calls, adults can allow the tension required by the dialectic to be created so that transformation can occur.

Again, however, the key is to be open to and allow this process to occur. For people who have been significantly damaged in one realm of knowing or the other, the individual acts as a closed system. So, for instance, the man who as a child was repeatedly told not to cry, that "boys don't cry" has learned that his feeling side is not acceptable and should not be developed. He may well have developed an elaborate defense mechanism to stave off his feeling side, and denies with that any opportunity for knowing from the intuitive realm. Or the woman who as a girl was told that her thoughts or ideas were unimportant, possibly being humiliated or punished for asking questions or told that she is not smart or that girls shouldn't be "too" smart, might retreat from the world of objective knowledge, finding refuge in a world of feelings and imagination, a subjective world.

Gender difference is an important topic in the whole field of adult development. Certainly the title of Belenky's book calls attention to that fact, as have a number of contributions to adult development in recent years, notably Carol Gilligan (1982). Although I have made references to questions of gender difference in this paper, I am definitely not doing justice to this territory. There is a great deal of research that deals with this question that I can not explore here adequately.

Clearly, however, I have drawn from this work. It has been valuable to me because it has helped create an image of the whole that is *human* development. For instance, **Women's Ways of Knowing** added to a previous and generally-accepted picture of cognitive development built by Piaget and William Perry, the entire subjective realm, a way of knowing that was, in some ways, implicit in Perry's conceptualization, but not explicit. By making it explicit, not only is a more common developmental path for women validated and legitimized *as a way of knowing*, but the conceptual basis for seeing the dialectic at work in adult development, as it is in Kolb's experiential

learning model, becomes apparent. It is difficult to clearly see the dialectic in Perry because the subjective realm appears only through the eyes of the objective.

Strategies for Educational Practice: Reflective and Relational Thinking

Two ways of thinking need to be cultivated to spur development toward this more integrated way of knowing: relational "thinking" and reflective thinking. *Relationship* is a central theme in both adult development and experiential learning on several levels. The experiential learning process, "experience-reflection-ideas-action," which leads to a new cycle of "experience-reflection-ideas-action," creates an active *relationship* between oneself and the world, between the world of ideas and the world of people, things and events. It is the kind of relationship that allows information and knowledge to come into oneself easily and the kind of relationship that allows one's knowledge to take shape and flow outwardly as action in the world.

Stages of epistemological development seem to be about coming into a conscious *relationship* with oneself, the world of "other," the physical world, and patterns and rhythms of the universe, seen and unseen. Education, if it is to be congruent with the process of learning, requires the act of *relationship* between student and teacher and fosters the experience of *relationship* between the individual and knowledge and between the individual and the world. Relational "thinking" is the kind of thinking (more generally considered "feeling") that helps individuals engage with the kinds of relationships described above. Relational thinking is the probing of connections.

Reflective thinking, on the other hand, carries one from the concrete to the abstract--it is essential for learning from experience. As Kolb's learning cycle suggests, when we <u>think</u> about our experiences, we begin to see patterns, make generalizations, build hypotheses and theories. Reflective thinking is also the process by which we can take ideas into experience and by which we can judge the efficacy of our actions.

When both relational and reflective thinking are cultivated through the educational process, development is stimulated in both the objective and subjective realms. The result is a more holistic and balanced development, one that I believe does not lead to contradictions and limitations like a more one-sided development does.

It is worth interjecting here the comment a friend who is a weaver and knitter made when she saw this model. She informed me of an interesting property of yarn--when two strands are plied together, they become both stronger yet softer. This information adds a great deal to the power of this representation of learning and knowing; it adds a metaphorical dimension to it I had not understood when the image first presented it. Wisdom, what is achieved when the strands are inextricably intertwined, is also stronger, yet softer than the forms of knowledge that precede it.

Conclusion

To make education congruent with *active, whole-person learning and knowing*, education will need to organize itself to foster this process, allowing parts of the individual, like imagination, emotions, intuition and creativity, which have been excluded in many forms of education, to be recognized, acknowledged and educated. Educators will need to encourage students to develop relational thinking as well as reflective thinking. It is "relational" thinking that allows one to learn empathically from the people and events that live in one's environment. It is through reflective thinking, however, that one learns to stand apart from one's environment in order to make some mental sense of it. With both happening at the same time, a different quality of existence is engendered--one that is healthy; one that involves the whole person; one in which learning, knowing and action are inextricably connected; and one in which empowerment and a sense of social responsibility become much more likely.

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CURRICULUM ISSUES FOR NON-TRADITIONAL PROGRAMS: GENERAL EDUCATION FOR CIVIC EFFECTIVENESS

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Should non-traditional programs concern themselves with education for citizenship? This paper explores how students at the External Degree Program at the University of Alabama are exploring this question. Our investigation is driven by contemporaty headlines of this sort. Have you recently seen them in one form or another?

VOTER PARTICIPATION CONTINUES TO DECLINE

CITIZENS UNHAPPY WITH "BUSINESS-AS-USUAL" POLITICS

UNIVERSITIES CLAIM THEY TEACH CIVIC EFFECTIVENESS

Chances are you have seen something like the first two but perhaps not the third.

The Census Bureau reports that in 1988 a bare majority of eligible voters cast ballots for president and that in 1990 the nationwide turnout for elections was a poor 45 percent. According to nearly every estimate, the decline will continue.

Many observers are describing 1992 as the year of the angry citizen. Elected representatives are deciding in record numbers not to run for re-election. Many citizens have lost confidence in Congress, where scandals and decision-making gridlock have occurred with frequency. California's recent experience with budget-making failure

bodes ill for other states, as a suburban culture of privatization increases in influence. Even for those who care about them, most political campaigns depend more on character assassination than deliberation of issues.

Lack of voter participation is but one symptom of a general problem. Best-selling books have titles addressing much broader difficulties with "business-as-usual" politics: Why Americans Hate Politics (E. J. Dionne, Jr.); The United States of Ambition (Alan Ehrenhalt) and The Betrayal of American Democracy (William Greidner). A much discussed study by The Harwood Group, Citizens and Politics: A View from Main Street America (Dayton, Ohio: The Kettering Foundation, 1991), reported that:

> They [citizens] argue that politics has been taken away from them--that they have been pushed out of the political process. They want to participate, but they believe that there is no room for them in the political process they now know.

Voting in fact is the easiest of civic skills. In theory, it requires considered information about candidates and issues. In practice, it requires only access and a modest amount of motivation.

The deeper problem is widespread disinterest in politics in general: the deliberation, the hard choices, and the work that safeguards freedoms, provides for the general welfare, creates the legitimacy for government, and monitors its effectiveness. These are the undelegatable responsibilities of citizens. Politics is not just what government does or does not do. Politics is what we do or

do not do. The word comes from the Greek polis, which means community.

Parker Palmer, a Quaker theologian, describes politics as the art of living with strangers, surely a pertinent thought as our nation wrestles with issues of diversity and community. What if--at the extreme of personal liberty--nobody feels like they are citizens and everybody declines to participate in public decision-making? Do we really have an individual choice about being citizens?

And where is higher education among these events and trends? Curiously, one is hard put to find a college or university catalog that does not contain a statement similar to this one:

> In achieving its purpose, the University offers a variety of programs designed to accomplish the following: analysis and transmission of knowledge and ideas, stimulation of the intellectual growth and creativity of the individual, development of professional abilities, addition to the sum of knowledge, application of knowledge, and development of enlightened and thus more responsible citizens [emphasis added].

Civic effectiveness is widely promised by institutions of higher education. How well do they deliver on this promise?

Suzanne Morse observes in Renewing Civic Capacity: Preparing College Students for Service and Citizenship (Washington, DC: ERIC, 1989) that:

> Colleges and universities are only one set of organizations that can affect the development and encourage the practice of civic skills. They cannot solve all of society's ills. But what they can do

> above all else is to provide the theory, the practice, and the place for civic learning.

Morse provides many useful suggestions for how colleges and universities can address the development of civic effectiveness beyond the cliches of "teaching people to think" and "civics." However, her otherwise excellent discussion ignores the vast number of older adult students in higher education.

Older adult students are already seasoned citizens. They may vary in the extent of their active participation in what most would call "politics"; that is, expressive, majoritarian, adversarial, governmental "business-as-usual" activities. But they are members of community organizations, they own property, and they have children--even grandchildren--in schools.

Moreover, the non-traditional programs in which many older adult students are enrolled often have more flexibility in curriculum design and development than more traditional programs. Vested interests of specialized academic departments, pressures for research and publication, sheer volume of students, and the weight of traditionalism itself are but a few of the impediments to curricula change in many academic programs.

In the fall of 1991, a group of seven adult students in the External Degree Program at The University of Alabama committed themselves to explore the relationship of their educational experiences to general education for civic effectiveness. In preparation for a group session, the

students read Bruce Kimball, Orators and Philosophers: A History of the Idea of Liberal Education (New York: Columbia University Press, 1986), and Bernie Murchland, ed., Higher Education and the Practice of Democratic Politics: A Political Education Reader (Dayton, Ohio: The Kettering Foundation, 1991).

The group began with a discussion of what citizens do. Simply put, citizens do politics. Accordingly, to think clearly about what understandings and skills a college graduate should possess in terms of civic effectiveness, we sought to understand what politics is.

We began this analysis by telling stories about our own political experiences and extracting from those experiences their key characteristics. This exercise is one I developed with Len Oliver of Oliver Associates in Washington, D. C., to teach the idea of "politics" experientially. The exercise is based in learning cycle theory as articulated by David A. Kolb. It is used primarily in Public Policy Institutes conducted by the Kettering Foundation to train citizens in using the National Issues Forums (NIF) program. (For further information about Public Policy Institutes and NIF, contact the Kettering Foundation, 100 Commons Road, Dayton, Ohio 45459-2777.)

We produced three lists. On the "left-hand" [active experimentation or application] side, we listed such activities as voting, lobbying, organizing, writing letters, raising money, compromising, projecting images, telling,

selling, etc. This list describes "business-as-usual" politics. On the "right-hand" [reflective observation] side, we listed such activities as getting input from all parties, listening, understanding the connection of parts to the whole, seeing the whole, respecting diversity, etc. This list describes deliberative democracy. In a middle column we listed activities such as choosing, setting direction, evaluating, etc. This list describes the best of what we want the "left-hand" and "right-hand" lists to produce.

We summarized the lists as <u>all</u> of politics. We noted that we cannot improve the right-hand side by doing the left-hand side better (except as the left-hand side activities provide substance for right-hand side reflective activities). We can improve, however, the left-hand side of experimentation by doing the right-hand side of reflection better. We developed the hypothesis that general education for civic effectiveness should focus primarily on skills and understandings needed on the right-hand side. It cannot neglect the left-hand side, but the active experimentation side of politics already receives considerable attention. In fact, it is this active experimentation dimension of governmental politics without adequate reflective deliberation of public politics that produces the least admired aspects of "business as usual."

Our second exercise for understanding all of politics was an Issue Analysis Exercise. This is another exercise

that I have developed for the Kettering Foundation with the assistance of its staff. The exercise is used in Public Policy Institutes to help participants understand differences among topics, issues, and symptoms and the relationship of things we hold valuable to choices we must make about issues. In extended, more intensive form, this exercise enables citizens to frame issues for public discussion. It allows participants to understand through experience many of the civic skills of thinking <u>together</u> about public policy concerns. These skills enable citizens to conduct choice work. Choice work is deliberation that extends beyond mere debate or polite conversations. Choice work converts "bull sessions" into decision making activities. Choice work produces public talk that is deliberative, integrative, and consistent in setting direction for policy.

To do all of politics effectively, we must have skills and understandings to identify true issues. Then we must be able to work through the value conflicts involved in basic choices about those issues and to make decisions about those choices. These skills and understandings are candidates for serious thinking about what general education for civic effectiveness should accomplish. (Conducting NIF programs provides training in these skills and understandings. These skills and understandings and their implementation will be discussed thoroughly in my forthcoming book on <u>Public Politics</u>.)

In essence, political choice involves making decisions when we cannot know for sure what the correct answer is. Since almost everyone wants to believe that they are right, making choices together in the face of ambiguity is not an easy thing to do. General education for citizenship thus at its core involves helping people learn how to make choices in the face of ambiguity. It also involves developing responsibility for unintended consequences.

Of course, no set of skills and understandings will find room in a curriculum unless there is reasonable agreement that the purpose of a curriculum is to teach them. We then discussed the nature of education. We identified from our previous readings three basic aims for developing a curriculum: autonomy, competitiveness, and civic virtue. Autonomy and competitiveness both have freedom as their core value. They are dominant influences in how educational programs design educational experiences. In overly broad terms, general education experiences in the humanities and to some extent in the social sciences are oriented toward a goal of autonomy. Again, in overly broad terms, general education experiences in the natural sciences and to some extent in the social sciences and educational experiences in academic majors or depth studies are oriented toward a goal of economic competitiveness. Civic virtue introduces a core value of responsibility and serves as a useful tension to the other two.

We next developed pros and cons for each of the three basic aims. Our list is deleted from this paper, since the Alliance program exercise to which this paper relates is that of developing a similar list. I hope that you as a reader will repeat this exercise in your own educational program. A point of the exercise is to recognize that each of the three curriculum models has both strengths and weaknesses. What makes curriculum development an issue is that it involves pulls and tugs among things held valuable, strengths, and weaknesses among more than two basic choices. (The multi-polar nature of choices in a genuine issue is a main teaching point of the Issue Analysis Exercise mentioned earlier in this paper.)

We then brainstormed a list of answers to the question of what should a graduate of the External Degree Program know and be able to do. Again, this list is omitted from this paper, since the Alliance program to which this paper relates is that of developing a similar list. Developing a list of this sort is a rather traditional exercise. However, making a list of competencies after the exercises presented above seems to move thinking beyond the usual rhetorical cliches. This creative thinking is necessary because most education is designed to help people convince other people that the holders of the education are "right." If the essence of politics is making decisions in the face of ambiguity, the focus of general educational preparation needs fundamental redirection.

Our next step has been to write reflective papers examining what general education experiences in communication skills, humanities, social sciences, natural sciences, and mathematics would look like if they were redirected in the ways suggested by the exercises we have conducted. We have also included papers on prior learning evaluation and public leadership. These papers are still being written for our own fledgling publication, The External Degree Program Review. We hope to have it ready for circulation in the coming year. A second group of students is beginning the same process this fall to build on what the original group of students has begun.

Of course, the premises of the exercises we have conducted are open to challenge, as are our tentative conclusions. To make a decision about curriculum is to make a political decision. We cannot assume we are right. The approach we have taken presumes that we need broad deliberation about these matters. To do the choice work needed, we must develop public knowledge and exercise public judgment. We invite you to explore the same matters we are exploring and to share the results of your deliberation. If you have insights and comments, write or call:

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The Unknown Territory on This Side of the Horizon: Adult Education in an Incoherent Culture

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The gods called Socrates wise because he knew he was ignorant. Assuming anyone must be wiser than himself, he sought to learn from everyone. Questioning Sophists - the "experts" in his time - he exposed their ignorance. Questioning people of less intellectual occupation, he enabled them to be more profound than they expected to be.

Profess less; enable more. This Socratic process still animates our intellectual heritage. But it endures in tension with a very different, perhaps even more powerful pedagogical pattern: the teacher authoritatively molding and filling the passive student with the knowledge most worth having. Contemporary adult education amply expresses this tension. We claim to encourage our students to be self-directed learners in a world open to free inquiry and innumerable life possibilities. But we are also gatekeepers to degrees in a world densely colonized with certification requirements based on myriad claims of expertise.

Current expertise is thick, factious and changeable. Indeed, so much is known - then challenged - that it seems absurd to claim to know the knowledge most worth having. Ironically, a reasonable start for student and teacher is bewilderment, a Socratic admission of ignorance in a culture so proud of knowing. Far from the stable, accessible world-view envisioned by our Enlightenment predecessors, we confront an

epistemic wilderness. The unknown territory is home, this side of our horizons.

Our current debates over canon and curriculum are not merely academic. The stuggle over what should be academically important knowledge is also about distributing power and privilege. The contentiousness in the academy reflects vast social conflicts, even over how those conflicts might be resolved. Some, such as Daniel Bell in his recent essay, "The Cultural Wars," express millenarian despair for our lack of consensus about repairing the damaged polity. But for critics seeking to reform the canon, such as Henry Louis Gates Jr., or transform our ways of knowing, such as Sandra Harding, breaking traditions is a hopeful, necessary step toward social justice.

Mentoring, we believe, is an important model of teaching and learning for this context. Drawing upon the Socratic approach, it seeks to accommodate both community and critique amidst our cultural confusions and struggles. It can respond carefully to uncertainties about expertise and the distribution of privilege. Mentoring is an experiment in authority, an effort to try new relationships.

Mentoring usually occurs between one teacher and one student. But it is also a political microcosm. It is a process by which community is sought between individuals of different interests and resources, and in which the boundaries between the public and the private are examined. Constantly at issue in mentoring are the deeply political questions of freedom, reliability and power. For example: To what extent should my

purposes, activities and opinions be accessible to another's questions and judgment? Which of my concerns in our discourse shall become central, which marginal, which left to silence? How do I evaluate what is unfamiliar and difficult for me? What good reason, if any, would justify replacing my arguments with my power? When should I restrain my judgment and action for the sake of trusting another?

In the academic culture where we were likely to have been students, teachers answer these questions for themselves and for their students. In mentoring, however, both teacher and student ask these questions, often directly, of themselves and one another. Such questions not only concern the process of learning; they also become its underlying and sometimes explicit content. As we struggle to answer them, our mutual learning proceeds. In many respects, this dialogue is a community.

We normally encounter these questions as academic decisions: devising topics for study, selecting appropriate resources, evaluating learning and designing curriculum. However, the processes to which the questions refer are much larger. Finding common interests, distributing attention, and accommodating different minds and wills, we tend to the problem of authority and in turn create new civic spaces, a polity.

This mentoring polity concentrates on dialogue in the original Socratic sense of talking/reasoning through with another. It does not assume that either party at the outset possesses the truth or that both will eventually possess it. Nor does it assume truth to be arbitrary - in which case

intellectual community would be merely coincidence or domination. A community of dialogue proposes, rather, that there is a basic truthfulness to the process of common inquiry. It claims legitimacy in a community founded upon the participants taking their own and each other's questions, abilities and interests seriously. The conclusions arising from such inquiries, provisional though they must be, are places from which inquiry continues. In provoking further conversation they continue to sustain community.

Our effort so far to introduce mentoring has been abstract. Now, we will describe two instances of mentoring, which, we hope, will point to the questions and issues raised above while showing its rich openendedness.

Carol

Artist, mother, entrepreneur, wife, friend, intellectual? Carol becomes a student in part because she wants learn how to be all these people at once. She is all those people, successfully, so far as I can tell. But she wants to learn something common in her diversity, something enabling her to be "better" at it. Seeking a unity of self, and of self and world, she wants to make her search an academic curriculum.

This learning isn't in a course catalogue, nor is it certainly covered by a discipline. We don't know its content before encountering it. A paradox. But both of us want to proceed with the inquiry. Carol wants some kind of skill and legitimacy; I want to know if we can devise an intellectually

and practically reliable principle of personal and social coherence.

As we begin to plan projects, I think of our "learning contract" as a social contract. I offer familiar topics:

> "Time management?" I suggest. "It's a useful skill for people who need to prioritize busy, complicated lives."
> "Not exactly. I already manage my time, and my family knows that when I'm working they shouldn't disturb me. It's more about who all of us are, not just how to do it."
> Remembering research done by my friend, Lois Zachary, I try "'role juggling,' managing many commitments simultaneously?"
> "'Juggling' that's good. I have to keep a lot of balls in the air at once."
> "Not so much a matter of priorities but equal commitments?"
> "Yes. It has to do with my art. It's creative; it's what my art is about and being a woman."
> "We might read Virginia Woolf, 'A Room of One's Own.' It's about why women must have their own space, literally."
> "That would be interesting. I'd like to understand other women artists. How do they remain creative and competent?"
> "You could study autobiographies of women artists, how they try to make their artistic and personal lives work together."
> "I'd love that. And I want to interview some of my friends, women I admire and feel close to. And I want to work on a timeline of my life and turn it into some kind of work, a graphic piece. And I need to make a professional portfolio, a sampling of my work I can show to potential clients. I'll keep a journal about all this."

I'm overwhelmed by Carol's agenda. Is it coherent, intellectual? Studying autobiography, empirical research - that's familiarly academic. But a personal timeline, interviewing one's friends, a project turning self into art and art into business, a personal journal? How is this creditable? How would I evaluate it? Might I simply help her (and me!) keep these activities true to the process and form each implies, and then trust her to name and tell me what she's learned?

Without certain answers, Carol and I still organize a learning plan containing the projects she'd identified. She keeps a private journal to reflect freely on her activities, and a "public" one to articulate her learning for discussion. As the study progresses, this relation between public and private becomes a unifying, generative principle of her learning and our discussions. For example, she shares her struggle to transform her timeline, something very private, into a work for public view. This journal and her other results become objects-in-common of our mutual inquiry, a little community.

When she's well along with her many projects, I note,

> "I see lots of connections, strands intertwining, leading toward your art."
>
> "Yes. I see connections too, but they're more like segments of a circle. Everything leads back to itself."

Each of us arriving at metaphors of connection suggests that we've achieved some common learning. They're also significantly different: I look for priority, something by which everything else might be measured. She looks for coherence by sustaining simultaneity and reciprocation. Is hers a woman's way of knowing, mine a man's? Our difference raises a question, a topic for further inquiry, if both of us agree.

Lester

While in prison, Lester had begun and failed three correspondence courses offered by our college. He was now in a half-way house with a job a drug rehab program in Harlem and wanted to continue his studies.

During our first meeting, I realized that I was anxious about the situation, not sure how it was going, what we would be doing or whether we were making any connection. As we sat at my round table, I especially worried that our stereotypes (my stereotypes of him and my assumptions about his stereotypes of me) might completely envelope us. Indeed, that distorting whirl of self-consciousness that pervades connections between blacks and whites was everywhere, and remained so even after we agreed to develop a learning contract together.

What would we do? How could we start? What was Lester interested in learning? And even, how would we address each other? Though seemingly unproblematic, this latter question about names and titles became a loaded one, a microcosm of so many of the problems of connection, hierarchy, respect and separation that we were dealing with. In our bi-monthly tutorial sessions, this most basic issue of identity - of who we were in and out of this distinctive academic context - served as either a tacit or explicit dimension of our interactions and of the learning contract itself.

My lingering identity as a sociologist in a college of generalists helped me narrow the range of possible beginnings. Such a disciplinary area held legitimacy for Lester, who very much wanted "to know what college students know," yet who clearly came with a more personal agenda about his place in society and his desire for acceptance. He was sure that I knew what he should learn. I knew that much of his experience was alien to me, that I was full of my own questions about him, and

that a conventional study of sociology would be more alienating than meaningful for both of us.

Our plan of study for Lester's initial four credits thus grew out of what could have been construed as formal talk about the construction of a study of class and race in America. But I came to believe that we both knew that we were simultaneously dealing with the more troublesome task of finding a way to talk with each other without relying on typical roles of teacher and student, and without my presuming to know his best interests. In this sense, Lester's "course" was both academically recognizable and focused on the search for a common language and for mutual respect. The practice of our being together mirrored the content of our study.

Lester wanted to know about the experiences of various groups in America. Why did some ethnic groups succeed and others not? Who were the Native Americans and what "slavery" did they endure? Why do African Americans continue to be victims of organized hatred? And, why don't things seem to change? What can we do to make things better? Lester read about these problems, struggled with his own interpretations, and came to acknowledge that his own history influenced his ideas and his efforts to create a meaningful narrative: a sense of things that had coherence for him and that he could and would communicate to me.

At so many points along the way, how I wished to know how Lester decided what to share with me and what to keep to

himself. But the subtle workings of this fine line was only hinted at as we continued to talk.

Nothing was more poignant for me, for example, than our discussion and his paper about Cowan's An Orphan in History. Lester wanted to understand the puzzling experience of a wealthy young Jew who "showed his great desire to find the truth in life by looking at the world's sorrow and pain" and who "was on the front line of the [Civil Rights] movement, taking his punches like a man and contributing to life." But I now believe that suggesting Cowan's autobiography was my not-so-conscious effort to bring one aspect of our relationship to light: Lester's suspicions about me, that "a white person, especially a Jew" as he wrote in his paper, "cannot totally empathize with the social and economic dilemmas of African Americans"; and my own suspicions that I was being manipulated by a black man who too easily separated me from every other white Jewish male he'd encountered. Again, in this fascinating and disturbing way, our relationship blended with the topic of the study.

Perhaps too, it was the very incompleteness and tension of our insights that have provoked us to undertake new studies together.

We have introduced mentoring as a response to problems we face as educators and citizens. In mentoring, we believe, assumptions about the roles of teacher and learner, and the

knowledge we hold sacred become explicit, and in fact become problems and topics for new learning, new beginnings.

This commitment is deeply, necessarily political. Our educational institutions and our teaching practices are not neutral conduits to an unshakeable single vision. They are products of a long, disputed history where hierarchies of role (e.g. between professors and students) and culturally specific definitions of knowledge (e.g. the "canon") define the boundaries of our educational geographies. Mentoring provides an occasion to examine this terrain, to pause and reflect on how, for example, even our language becomes an inviolable map of our learning.

And if the commitment is political, the practice of mentoring is difficult, frustrating and so easily abandoned. Traditionally, becoming a student means accepting the status of receiver, to be socialized into passivity. Complementarily, becoming a teacher means taking one's place as knower, a tested, masterful arbiter of topics and ways of knowing. These roles feel quite natural, comfortable, right. To enter a different process, mentoring, demands willingness to work with the discomforts of not knowing, of questioning the authority of a teacher or text, of struggling with cultural assumptions, and of watching patiently for goals not fully known or neatly named.

But this commitment is particularly relevant now. The culture which we, as teachers, are bequeathed and expected to pass on is in crisis. The highly politicized and persistent public debate about canon and curriculum shows in itself the

incoherence of this culture and the limits of its primary "myths," which are increasingly seen as illusory or distorted. As available certainties become more precarious, our need grows to wonder honestly and carefully about what we know, how we know, who knows and the effects of those claims on our lives.

Finally, if our culture is to become more democratic, mentoring is relevant because it is an alternative to elitist models of expertise. The kind of inquiry it engenders requires and thus demonstrates reciprocity. The consensus we create in mutually meaningful dialogue gives us experience in thinking about and acting in a public world. Social isolation in America is profound. Dependent though we are on experts, their ambition and arrogance makes us rightly cynical about their privileged neutrality. The mentoring process offers chances to try new forms of listening, sharing, and deciding - new ways resting more on humility about what we don't know than pride in what we suppose we do. Thus mentoring might contribute toward achieving a coherent democratic culture.

Internships and Field Experience Learning
for Adult and Nontraditional Students

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This workshop, involving representatives of three institutions serving adult and non-traditional students and of the National Society for Internships and Experiential Education (NSIEE), will focus upon teaching and learning through internships/field experience. Presenters will comment upon the following issues, policies, and procedures, and time will be provided for participants to react to the presentations and raise their own concerns.

Combining service and learning for older and younger students
The internship as a bridge into professional life
Learning contracts for internships
Development of internship sites
Issues of on-site supervision
Evaluation of learning in the internship experience
Integrating the internship into the undergraduate degree
Faculty development for instruction in internships

The Principles of Good Practice in Combining Service and Learning, articulated by practitioners through a broad-based process sponsored by the NSIEE and finalized in 1989, will be distributed. The relationship

between a service-learning philosophy and the development of professional expertise will be discussed. Descriptive materials and learning contracts from various institutions will be available for review.

TRACK C:

REVITALIZING TEACHING AND TEACHERS

Carole Ganim

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TRANSFORMING LEARNERS INTO SCHOLARS THROUGH WRITING

> Any human being who can speak English understandably has all the materials necessary to write English clearly, and even beautifully. There is nothing mysterious about the written language; it is precisely the same, in essence, as the spoken language. If a man [and, one presumes, a woman] can think in English at all, he [she] can find words enough to express his [her] ideas. (Mencken 4)

Thus declaimed H.L. Mencken in his classic "On Style," published in 1926. This statement reduces much of what James Thurber would later call "the conspiracy of yammer and merchandising against literate speech," (54) in this case, much of the theorizing and declaiming about writing theory of recent years, to translucent simplicity. In other words, if one has use of the rudiments of language, and if one has an intellect which can formulate thought, then one can usually combine the two into a useful, even aesthetically delightful, written or spoken form.

Yes, critical theory has helped us and has given us a vocabulary and a series of pedagogies and methodologies about writing, but I remain convinced that Mencken, E.B. White, Peter Elbow, and others are the gurus.

Let us ourselves think, speak and write clearly and let us teach others to do likewise. It is as fundamental as that. Many years ago, I learned Thomistic theology from a no-nonsense Thomist. One of the startling truths which impressed me when I was eighteen was that Aquinas, after Aristotle, pointed out that human

beings have appetites. As I remember it, the body has an appetite for food and water, the will for goodness, and the intellect for understanding and knowledge. This was an overpowering insight to me at the time because it justified knowledge as an end in itself; it explained my own delight and need for learning; it gave me a logical rationale for my life's desire and work.

Recently, I looked back to see whether or not Thomas Aquinas had really said what I remembered. I found this in Summa Contra Gentiles:

> Now understanding is the proper operation of the intellectual substance, and consequently is its end.... Now all practical sciences, arts and powers are lovable only for the sake of something else, since their end is not knowledge, but work. But speculative sciences are lovable for their own sake, for their end is knowledge itself. (43, 45)

All of this is by way of justifying the pretentious title of this paper, "Transforming Learners Into Scholars Through Writing." It is to say that "transforming" implies an action by an agent, presumably the professor, you or I. The title also implies that the action of the agent instigates a process which is intrinsically successful. Both of these assumptions may be correct, but are not necessarily correct. I am arguing, rather, that the learner effects the transformation, if and when it occurs, because that learner has the intellectual appetite to do so. I am arguing that the acquisition of knowledge is an end in itself. I am further arguing that we as professors, having ourselves gone through this transformation, can provide stimulation toward and can design a process which will help the transformation of our students. This can be done and has been done since Socrates argued with his fellow

citizens in the agora. This is "andragogy," as Alexander Kapp, who first used the term (Sommer 8) and Malcolm Knowles, who popularized it, tell us (Knowles 19). Sommer clarified the term by pointing out that andragogy means that the learner is actively involved in designing the learning process and that the context of the student's learning is important to the enterprise (Sommer 33).

I would like to discuss how a carefully structured writing process is an example of a transformation methodology. At The Union Institute, the median age of undergraduate learners is 37. Most people who matriculate have had one or two years of college, and most are employed in professional or managerial positions. Some are readers and scholars; most, however, are intelligent, practical workers. How does one meet the practical needs of adult learners and teach them writing skills and structures immediately useful to them? This is difficult enough, but more difficult is the task of conversion. How does one convert pragmatic writers into scholarly ones? How does one build into the learning process the excitement and pride of scholarly research? How does one transform students into researchers and scholars?

The intellectual activity of research and academic writing, accompanied by a graduated process of clearly-delineated tasks, can be sufficient to engage the learners, to attract them, and entice them forward so that intellectual achievement becomes their reward and their greatest satisfaction. To know for the sake of knowing, to learn for the sake of learning is meaningful for adult learners, and can capture them on the highest level.

Presented early in the adult learners' career, this kind of

learning can make the difference between the persons who earn a degree and the persons who get an education.

The primary unspoken objective of Research and Writing is just this. I have tried to design a process that will meet the primary objective and will also accomplish two goals: 1. Teach academic research and writing processes and skills. 2. Engage students in learning at the highest possible cognitive level.

The course begins with an introduction to the library, and an exercise in "trivial pursuits." It continues with an interview assignment to teach a form of field research, then an annotated bibliography assignment. The next assignment is a 5-page research paper, given so that the learner must go through the entire process once and get feedback from a peer reviewer and from the instructor. The final paper, a 10-page research paper, is to be the magnum opus, where the process and the learning unite.

Does this work? How does this work? Here is what I think happens when Jane becomes a scholar.

The first class meeting of Writing and Research introduces Jane to writing as a recursive process. Jane is a case manager at the local mental health center whose writing in the past ten years has consisted of reports and memos. Jane is terrified when she hears the word "recursive" and when she hears that writing is preceded by pre-writing or invention and succeeded by editing and revision. A few invention exercises prove to be fun and Jane begins to relax.

Then the professor announces that "academic research" is the conventional mode whereby scholars present their material to each

other and to the world to further the advance of knowledge. The professor further announces that Jane, now a member of the academic community, will participate in that exchange and growth and must learn the protocols. Jane becomes terrified again.

Now the professor intervenes. She or he engages Jane in the p[illegible]ess. The first assignment is a library research and trivial p[illegible]uits exercise. Most adults are unfamiliar with the research aspects of a library, and are too intimidated by the library, particularly a college or university library, and by librarians to ask for help. This introductory exercise forces Jane to go into the library and to physically handle and examine the books and various other resources. In a different context, Natalie Goldberg comments on the physicality of writing:

> What people don't realize is that writing is physical.... You are physically engaged with the pen, and your hand, connected to your arm, is pouring out the record of your senses. There is no separation between the mind and the body.... (50)

It is this kind of tactile experience that a learner needs when first interacting with books and libraries as well as with the act of writing. The first section of the assignment asks such questions as, "What are the Dewey decimal and Library of Congress catalog numbers for books on silkworms?" or "How many articles were published in 1990 on Abigail Adams?" or "Name 3 books on cognitive psychology found in Psychological Abstracts in 1988." The second part of this assignment asks such questions as "What does a lully-prigger steal?" or "Why did everyone laugh at Cassandra?" or "What was the front-page headline in your local paper on the day of your birth?"

Jane and the other learners in her group do this assignment together and return frustrated, aggravated, and pleased with themselves. They do realize that the andragogical reasons for the task were fulfilled: they know what is in the library and they are more comfortable there. They have touched and handled the books and worked with each other. Some even have found that they became intrigued with the multiplicity of resource material and spent several hours more than they had intended on the task.

The interview assignment is second for several reasons: 1) it says that libraries are not the only sources of information, and that field research is necessary and valid; 2) it is easier for most adults to do interviews than to write papers and it provides a confidence-building segue; 3) it gives the professor an early writing sample which can demonstrate significant writing strengths and weaknesses.

Jane enjoys the interview exercise. She prepares for the interview according to the guidelines, conducts it professionally, and writes the report well. She feels that she has used professional skills previously acquired and has learned more about the research potential of field resources.

The third assignment takes Jane back to the library to do an annotated bibliography. This assignment allows the professor to teach documentation form early in the course and to provide an opportunity to practice it. Secondly, it asks Jane to begin the invention process for her first paper by suggesting that doing an annotated bibliography on the topic to be written about later would be an efficient use of time. Thirdly, Jane learns how to take

notes from her reading and how to organize them. Most importantly, completing an annotated bibliography will provide Jane with an added chance at library familiarity and will allow her to examine materials on a selected topic.

It is at this point in the process that Jane, and several others, begin to acknowledge change. They come back amazed at how much there is to know about one particular topic. They find that they were unable or unwilling to stop looking. They discover that they are following leads from one book to another. They even find that they have to change their topics because they have found newer, more interesting ones.

It is difficult for the professor not to feel benevolent at this stage.

The last two assignments in Writing and Research are research papers. The first one is a 5-page paper and the second a 10+-page paper. Writing two research papers allows Jane to work through the entire research process once and to get both peer and professional feedback before writing the second paper. The 5-page paper is a trial run and is presented as such. All the skills previously taught and practiced are reviewed: library research skills, interviewing and field research skills, note-taking and documentation. New instruction focuses on the structure and format of the entire paper, in particular, the formulation of thesis sentence and methods of support.

Jane has her MLA Handbook, her English handbook, her dictionary and perhaps other books, but, at this point, she must complete the preliminary work and write a paper. This is the most

difficult point in the process. It is the cognitive moment where Jane must integrate her researched learning with her own analysis. If the professor has helped with appropriate instruction and enthusiasm, and if the previous assignments have been completed and reviewed successfully, and if the subject matter has intrigued Jane, and if she has satisfactory to good basic writing skills, Jane should be able to do this.

Jane is able to effect the integration and writes a 5-page research paper, her first one. She knows she is successful. She is delighted and weary. She waits for response.

Peer review of the 5-page paper is an excellent way for learners to help each other and to get immediate feedback. The professor provides a guide for the peer review process, but knows that most comments will be laudatory. This is good at this point.

The professor is more carefully critical of Jane's first paper. The task is to make sure that Jane can do the entire research process and can produce a product. Jane knows that the professor's positive comments are acknowledgements that she has succeeded and that the negative comments are provisional: these things should be better next time. Jane edits and revises her 5-page paper.

The last assignment in Writing and Research is a 10-page paper. This paper is to be the magnum opus. Jane executes the entire process once again, on a different topic, incorporating what she learned from her 5-page paper into this one.

At this point, Jane is fully engaged in research activity. She has found her topic(s) fascinating or interesting and she has

found her intellect strained and stretched. Reading other peoples' ideas has challenged her thinking and forced her to examine her own assumptions and to question those of others. She is doing what Susan Horton encourages her students to do: "...to realize that there are more concepts around that could benefit from redefining than any of us may realize" (110). Thinking through an idea, using others' ideas and information on the topic, and organizing this into a coherent presentation has demanded her best intellectual activity. Her 10-page paper is clear and interesting. It demonstrates the ability for scholarly work and a certain mastery of the process. Jane is not yet a publishable scholar, but she is a scholar. She has responded well to the process, has engaged in it fully, and has written a paper properly intellectual and formally correct.

More significantly, Jane has learned experientially what Aristotle and Aquinas taught us centuries ago: she has an intellect that must know and understand. She is pleased with her effort and its results. She is hungry for more.

Transforming learners into scholars is a process that when it works, works very well. It works often, but not always. When it works, it works because the nature of the process involves the learner and engages her/him at the highest level of curiosity and creativity.

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DIVERSITY IN THE CLASSROOM: GROUP STRATEGIES

Introduction

The contemporary workplace increasingly demands effective group skills to ensure high performance. By the year 2000, over 50% of new entrants into the workforce in the U. S. will be from minority groups. In addition, there is practically no industry in this country that does not face international competition. This means that increasing numbers of people will have extensive interactions with cultures other than their own. Difficulties inevitably arise whenever people from different cultures attempt to interact. What may seem "proper and good" to people in one culture may be labeled "improper and bad" by people from another culture (Adler, 1986). Common responses to potential conflicts are ethnocentrism ("my way is the best way") and parochialism ("my way is the only way"). In order to better prepare individuals to meet these challenges, finding ways to understand the dimensions of diversity in the classroom has become a high priority for the authors.

Both authors have found the use of group projects and exercises a powerful strategy when interacting with a diverse group of students. When teaching adults, the diversity in a group becomes the most creative source of new ideas: it creates varying perspectives when framing the question and brings about more alternatives when coming up with solutions. These problem-framing

and problem-solving processes are fundamental to effective groups in the workplace and in the classroom.

Ben-Yoseph uses a variety of methods and techniques to encourage students to work in groups in her course on Managing in a Cross-Cultural Environment which she teaches at Northwestern University and at DePaul University. In his teaching over the past 5 years, Harris has experimented with Witkin's Group Embedded Figures Test (GEFT) as a measure of cognitive style to understand one aspect of diversity in a class. The GEFT provides information on the Field-Dependence, Independence of the learner, with which Harris creates groups with diverse cognitive styles and continuous membership.

Cross-cultural Teaching Strategies

The concept of cross-cultural instruction has great popular appeal, as manifest in the large number of books, articles and conferences dealing with one aspect or another of the subject. The interest is certainly understandable given the increasing importance of international activity, the increasing levels of domestic multiculturism, and the realization that survival in a global environment depends on the competence of the people involved. In this context, competence must be defined in terms of both work related skills and cultural sensitivity. In fact, research findings indicate that failure in international settings rarely results from technical or professional incompetence; it is ignorance of other cultures and inability to adapt to different

ways of life that causes failure (Copeland and Griggs, 1985; Harris and Moran, 1987).

"Managing in a Cross-cultural Environment" was designed to address dilemmas and opportunities that individuals may encounter as they work or study in multi-cultural or international environments. Given the nature of the course, it is perhaps not surprising that it always attracted a heterogenous group of students. In other words, students came from quite different backgrounds, representing different cultures, genders, races, professions, ages, experiences, education, and outlooks. Since the differences are present in the group, there was less need to simulate cultural differences than in more homogenous groups. However, a heterogenous group requires a great variety of teaching methods to forge linkages between theory and practice, and between each individual and the rest of the group (Pusch, 1979).

While the textbook selected for this class, Nancy Adler's International Dimensions of Organizational Behavior constituted an excellent theoretical framework for students to learn about other cultures and other peoples, and about ethnocentrism and parochialism, group projects and exercises provided students with opportunities to relate these concepts to their own attitudes, behaviors, interests and experiences. Over-reliance on discussions and presentations based exclusively on the textbook would not have allowed taking advantage of each student's personal knowledge and experience for the benefit of the class as a whole. Consequently, the book was supplemented with additional readings, lectures, and

a variety of class activities including: exercises, critical incidents, case studies, films, and guest lectures. As the course progressed these activities seemed to help students experience various aspects of cultural differences, respond to them, and begin integrating them in their own ways of thinking and behaving.

Dialogue is crucial in cross-cultural education (Pusch, 1979). Practically everybody in the class has had some sort of cross-cultural experience with people of another country, ethnic group, religion, or social class. Sharing these experiences with each other enabled students to understand the relevance of cross-cultural instruction to their own lives. The case studies, critical incidents, films, and the presentations given by guest speakers with extensive international experience in various parts of the world supplemented the students' own experiences and provided additional opportunities for discussion. Finally, the students' presentations to the class which required gathering of information of particular interest to the student, enhanced the sense of shared responsibility for the learning process not only among students but also between students and teacher.

In their evaluations, students indicated that the course met their expectations, noting a better understanding of people of different cultures, a greater sensitivity to people in general, and a desire to work or study in international or multinational settings. Some students objected to the emphasis placed on class participation. They felt that the class was biased in favor of those who are more articulate and less shy in group situations. Others wrote that

time was too short for a course of this nature and suggested that a course like this should be taught over a full semester.

Both comments make sense. First, while it is clear that dialogue is crucial in cross-cultural education, members of cultures which place less emphasis on verbalization should not be penalized (Weeks et al, 1979). Instructors need to be more aware of non-verbal communication and remember that learning is culture-bound. It should not be assumed that members of all cultures are as comfortable with openly expressing their thoughts and feelings as Americans are. Second, cross-cultural instruction must be delivered over an extended period of time. There are no quick-fix solutions to global illiteracy; cross-cultural instruction must be seen as a long term proposition.

Experimenting with Cognitive Style

Harris has used small groups in his teaching for the past 25 years. Like most instructors, however, until recently he had composed these small groups within his classroom in a fashion not always functionally related to the task of the groups. Most of us create groups in rather haphazard ways: by counting off, proximity, or by interest area, for example.

Harris chose cognitive style as a useful and promising variable for this work because cognitive style has been shown to be one of the most stable core personality dimensions throughout one's life. (Curry, 1983) According to Herman Witkin, who has done extensive research on several dimensions of the concept, cognitive style is,

"a person's typical mode of perceiving, remembering, thinking, and problem-solving." (Messick, 1976, p.5) Thus it affects all activities that involve cognition, including social and interpersonal functioning (Witkin, 1976).

The dimension, Field-Dependence, Independence. has been the subject of over 2,000 studies over the past 35 years (Cross, 1979). It is easily measured by a paper and pencil test, the Group Embedded Figures Test (GEFT), which takes about 15 minutes to administer. The construct of Field-Dependence, Independence, unlike intelligence, is value-neutral because a score toward either end of the scale can be considered positive or negative depending on the learning situation. Additionally, the GEFT is one of the more culture- and value-neutral tests of cognitive style because it uses geometric figures rather than words.

Early studies suggested that women were more Field-Dependent or Field-Sensitive than men. More recent research indicates that it may not be gender-linked so much as the product of early socialization and child rearing practices (Witkin and Goodenough, 1981). Cultures do differ in their child-rearing practices, and many cultures, including the majority U.S. culture, socialize little boys and little girls differently. Studies by Ramirez, Herold, and Casteneda (1975) and an analysis by Halverson (1979) provide evidence that there are demonstrable cognitive style differences between various minority groups or microcultures in the U.S.

The growing numbers of adults returning to higher education over

the past several years has included more women than men, as well as both men and women who have had difficulty with school in the past. Balenky et al in Women's Ways of Knowing, show how women, because of the way they were socialized, come to make meaning of the world differently than men - women in a more connected or contextual way than men. Gilligan (1982, 1990) and others have contributed importantly to this understanding. The conclusions of this recent work confirm the research of Witkin and his associates that women tend to be more Field-Sensitive than men. This means that they are more tuned in to social cues, contextually-oriented, prefer to work with people rather than things, etc. It also means that they take a more global perspective, and see the whole rather than individual parts.

Halverson (1979) has identified and documented the cultural patterns relative to cognitive style for varous racial/ethnic and gender groups based on the references and research primarily carried out by members of that microculture. The groups on which there was sufficient information for classification were: Low-income Urban Black (Billingsley 1969), Traditional Mexican American (Ramirez, Herold, and Casteneda, 1975), Traditional Native American (Brewer, n.d.), Middle-class White, and Traditional Female (Bem, 1975). Halverson concludes that Traditional Native American, Traditional Mexican American, Traditional Female, and Low-income Urban Black groups all tend to more global, holistic or Field-Sensitive than the Middle-class White Male groups with an analytic, Field-Independent style. These Field-Sensitive persons (all but the Middle-class White Males) have: 1) likely had more difficulty

in school, and 2) outnumber the Field-Independents returning to school.

The challenge for the teacher then, when faced with this kind of diversity, is how to use it as a resource for learning, rather than see it as a problem. Adult educators such as Patricia Cross have suggested that consciously mixing rather than matching the the style of the adult learner is a sound pedagogical practice to challenge and stretch the range and develop flexibility of style. In turn this gives the learner a greater repertoire of reponses for varying situtations. By using the diversity of style as a criterion for the composition of small groups in the classroom and then providing skillful facilitation, a teacher can capitalize on these differences, improving the learning for all. At this point, a more systematic study of the outcomes is in the design stage. But two important positive results have been observed to date.

There is increased power in collaborative learning by design, consciously using the richness and diversity which presents itself in classrooms with adults. Creating a non-competitative environment in which each has a stake in the success of others is a novel process for many learners. But to add the diversity dimension and capitalize on the differing roles people play due to their differences in cognitive style introduces another anticipated learning outcome which can be achieved - that of understanding a dimension of individual difference with highly creative potential for the workplace and community. In evaluations of class process, learners have expressed a high degree of appreciation for the

learning climate created by the attention to style in the course.

The second result is the improved quality of individual products. It is preferable to have learners draft and redraft their material rather than handing it in only as a finished product at the end. The results of these dialogues with the instructors, but more importantly, dialogues with members of their small groups about their work, greatly improve the quality and creativity of their work. Having an accessible, respectful, diverse audience makes for fuller, richer outcomes, both written and oral.

Conclusion

While each author used a different path to arrive at their current approach to the use of group strategies in their teaching, both are firmly convinced of its power, especially when addressing the issue of diversity. In the presentation they will provide specific examples to encourage questions and discussion.

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Those who Sell, Organize, Compute, Write, Market, Design, Manage. . . . May Also Be Able to Teach With Little Stimulus from an Academic Institution. However, Are Part Time Faculty Receptive to Programs to Improve Vitality?

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Introduction

Faculty and institutional vitality became a major issue in academia. In response to pressure from the public, state legislatures, competition, and their own missions, many institutions instituted programs to enhance faculty and institutional vitality (Bland and Schmitz 1988). However, these programs have had an uneven record of effectiveness.

Typologies of successful and unsuccessful faculty vitality programs emerged from these programs. Successful programs were characterized by high faculty involvement and renewed commitment to teaching and learning, to mention two of the most pertinent variables (Eble and McKeachie 1985). Ineffective programs were found to exist due to failure to arouse faculty interest (Eble and McKeachie; Hammons and Wallace 1976; Blackburn, Pellino, Boberg and O'Connell 1980). Programmatic failure led some researchers to assess the preconditions for a program to improve faculty vitality (Ackland 1991). Research suggested one necessary precondition for successful faculty vitality programs was felt needs by faculty (Eble and McKeachie). If faculty vitality programs could be better targeted to professors' perceived needs, perhaps these programs would have a better track record of success. For this reason, we surveyed professors, assessing receptivity for a program to improve faculty and institutional vitality.

Part Time Faculty

Most of the literature on faculty vitality analyzes full timers. However, the role of part time faculty on college campuses is growing in numbers and in the percentage of courses taught (Mangan 1991). Currently, it is estimated that 35 to 40% of all college teachers work part time (Mangan).

Since most part time faculty work either full or part time in other employment settings, their role as faculty member is, by necessity, subordinate to other demands on their time and energy (Walter 1990; Wallace 1984). Institutions desiring to implement faculty vitality programs are faced with a dilemma; administratively impose a faculty vitality program, knowing that the rate of failure for this type of program is high (Eble and McKeachie 1985), or allow part time faculty to develop their own program, taking the risk the program may not get started due to lack of time (Walter 1990; Hosey, Carranza, White and Kauer 1990). One middle ground would impose a faculty vitality program based on expressed needs by part time faculty. However, such a middle ground would be more tenable if there was a theoretical model to predict receptivity of part timers to faculty vitality programs.

Theory: The Receptivity of Part Timers to Programs to Improve Faculty Vitality

As Clark, Corcoran and Lewis (1986) noted, types of faculty and institutional vitality will differ according to institutional type and mission. Institutions that emphasized teaching and/or service needed faculty vitality programs that revitalized routine teaching and emphasized quality teaching for new and experienced faculty (Baldwin 1990). Institutions that emphasized research needed to consider resources to sustain scholarly productivity (Eble and McKeachie 1985). However, the institutional "teaching versus research" distinction may not be pertinent for part timers, who are primarily hired for teaching (Wallace 1984). Part timers are generally not eligible for sabbaticals, research incentive awards, and leaves of absence (Jason 1984). Additionally, the

extrinsic-intrinsic dimension noted by Berman and Skeff (1988) may not explain part timers' receptivity to faculty vitality if part timers are excluded from extrinsic rewards (Wallace 1984). There is a need to understand theoretically the special experiences of this rapidly growing faculty population.

Transferable Skills is one possible explanation for the difference observed in receptivity of part timers to programs to improve faculty vitality. Generally, transferable or generalizable skills have been applied to teachers looking for jobs in the business world (Clapp 1987, Biel 1986, Miller 1983). However, the idea of transferable skills can also be applied to people in the business world taking jobs in teaching. Those who sell, organize, compute, write, market, design, manage. . . . may also be able to teach effectively with little help from an academic institution. Some skills used in the business world (introductions, presenting material, working with people) are essential to teaching. However, other skills are more specifically associated with teaching (e.g., designing a grading system). Faculty vitality programs aimed at part timers might have a greater chance of success if such programs concentrated on perceived classroom needs of faculty. Such programs would not have to address generalizable skills that business people deal with on a day to day basis. Faculty inexperienced in academia will see transferable skills in business related areas. We hypothesize that inexperienced faculty will see classroom related skills as important for vitality. Experienced faculty will see all skills as transferable. The business skills will be seen as transferable due to day to day usage on the job. The classroom skills will be seen as transferable due to prior teaching experience. Hence, we hypothesize that inexperienced faculty will be receptive to classroom skills to improve vitality.

Integration with the Institution is a second explanation for the differences observed in receptivity to programs to improve faculty vitality.

Austin (1984) claimed that social involvement in an institution was important for a student to conform to the norms of a particular college. Wallace (1966) found that students who become more highly integrated into a peer group tended to adopt its attitudes. While the models of Wallace and Austin do not directly apply to professors, we might expect an analogous result with part time faculty. Part time faculty can teach irregularly or semester after semester (Walter 1990). The faculty member who teaches regularly may be more integrated into the norms of an institution than a person who teaches an occasional course. Additionally, faculty who teach regularly may be psychologically and/or financially tied to the institution. This social integration may increase receptivity to faculty vitality programs[1]. Hence, we hypothesize the greater the integration with the institution, the greater the receptivity to faculty and institutional vitality.

Geographic Area: A Variable Specific to External Degree Programs. Additionally, faculty teaching in external degree programs may be differentially integrated into the institution for reason of proximity to the main campus. In external degree programs, some faculty teach on or near the main campus. Others may teach at outreach centers many miles away (Walter 1990). Faculty teaching in the same general area of the institution can see the physical buildings that constitute the campus and can interact with some of the people who work at the institution full time. Faculty teaching in off campus satellite facilities hundreds or thousands of miles away can only interact with campus personnel with a great commitment of time and money (Walter 1990). Due to this increased distance, we expect less receptivity to faculty vitality programs. For this reasons, we hypothesize that faculty teaching in outreach centers is less receptive to faculty vitality programs.

The Dependent Variables: Faculty Receptivity to Faculty and Institutional Vitality

Receptivity to faculty and institutional vitality was assessed by analyzing the methods and strategies that are successful in teaching adults (e.g., see Knowles 1980, 1989; Brookfield 1990, 1992; Galbrath 1990; Johnson 1985; Conti 1990; Wlodkowski 1990). Additionally, questions on exam preparation and grading were designed to deal with more general faculty issues (Katz and Henry 1988). Finally, a question on course planning was asked due to its special importance in distance education (Beaudoin 1990).

Methodology

Independent Variables

Prior Teaching Experience: Respondents were asked if they had prior full or part time teaching experience. If respondents reported any part or full time experience, that individual was classified experienced. If respondents did not have any part or full time experience, that person was classified inexperienced[2]. Based on transferable skills, we hypothesized that part time faculty with no prior no teaching experience would more receptive to a program designed to increase faculty and institutional vitality in course specific skills than in general skills used in the business world. Additionally, we hypothesized that experienced faculty would see less need than inexperienced faculty for vitality programs (course specific and business).

Integration to the Institution: Integration to the institution was defined by asking the faculty the number of prior courses they taught in the department.

Proximity was defined by whether the faculty member comes from the geographic region of the home campus, or comes from an external geographic

region. Operationally, the proximity variable was taken from the postmark of the returned survey.

Dependent Variable: Perceived Need For Faculty and Institutional Vitality

Perceived Need for a Guide to Teaching the Faculty's First Course in Program: The dependent variable assessed faculty receptivity for a self help manual for the new faculty member unfamiliar with teaching in the program. Part time professors were asked how valuable a self help guide would have been before they started teaching in the program. We consolidated the 14 components of Table 1A into a scale. All components of the scale positively intercorrelated with each other and the Cronbach's alpha for the scale was .89.

Setting and Subjects

This research took place at a private midwestern college. The institution was devoted to undergraduate teaching. The institution awarded a variety of degrees from the associate to the master's level. The faculty vitality program assessed was an external degree, non-traditional adult education business program. All faculty associated with this program were part timers.

Results

Surveys were sent to all faculty members. Overall, about 47% of the surveys were returned. The total number of usable surveys returned was 167.

Unvariate Analysis

Tables 1A and 1B shows the univariate distribution of the variables in the model. Table 1A shows the breakdown of each component of the Perceived Need for a Guide to Teaching the Faculty's First Course in Program scale. Faculty rated course planning as most valuable, consistent with the findings in the distance education literature (Beaudoin 1990). Faculty rated doing introductions, leading group discussion and presenting material as the three least valuable attributes. Table 1B shows that most of the faculty had prior teaching experience, and

taught quite a few courses in the program. Table 1B also shows that nearly half of the faculty came from the same geographic region as the home campus. Further, Table 1B shows that there is considerable variation to the perceived need for a Guide to Teaching the Faculty's First Course in Program scale. A score of "1" indicated a classification of "not very valuable" for a particular category. A score of "5" indicated a classification of "very valuable" for a particular category. The lowest value was 19, nearly a not very valuable score for each response, while the highest value was the maximum score of 70 for a respondent who felt that every attribute asked in Table 1A was very valuable.

Bivariate Analysis

Table 2 presents the bivariate hypotheses testing of our dependent variable. We find statistically significant support for H_1 (experience) and H_2 (number of courses taught). We find that those faculty who taught a greater number of courses in the programs were significantly more receptive to faculty vitality than those faculty who taught fewer courses. H_3 (proximity) was insignificant.

Multivariate Model

Table 3 presents the multivariate hypotheses testing of our dependent variable. Our multivariate tests of statistical significance were the same as the bivariate level: support for H_1 (experience) and H_2 (number of courses taught), no support for H_3 (proximity).

Magnitude and Strength of Statistical Effect

Table 3 shows that faculty with prior teaching experience decrease their perceived need for a Guide to Teaching the Faculty's First Course in Program by about 7 points. Further, Table 3 shows that the strength of the statistical effects for the model was weak. The amount of explained variation in the perceived

need for a Guide to Teaching the Faculty's First Course in Program scale was about 12%.

Conclusion

Inexperienced faculty were significantly more receptive than experienced faculty towards the vitality program, thus supporting one component of the transferable skills hypothesis. Additionally, both experienced and inexperienced faculty were not receptive towards aspects of vitality programs dealing day to day business proficiencies (e.g., presenting material, leading group discussions), supporting the second component of the transferable skills hypothesis.

There was only marginal support for the integration hypothesis. Faculty with higher integration show a small, significant effect for increased receptivity, controlling for transferable skills. There was no significant support for the proximity hypothesis. The direction of the proximity coefficient was negative, consistent with the hypothesis; however, the magnitude of the coefficient was insufficient to reject the null hypothesis. Faculty teaching hundreds of miles from a main campus were as receptive to faculty vitality as faculty teaching in the same area as the main campus.

Targeting scare resources to inexperienced faculty may help avoid the transferable skill problem. Berman and Skeff's (1988) survey of experienced faculty would lead us to suspect that experienced faculty would claim vitality programs to improve teaching was unnecessary because the faculty are already proficient teachers.

Endnotes

1. Unfortunately, integration may also impact likelihood of returning a survey.

2. Alternative operationalizations of experienced yielded similar empirical results.

Table 1A: Descriptive Analysis of Perceived Need for a Guide to Teaching the Faculty's First Course in Program Scale

Attribute	Percentage Saying the Attribute is					Mean	Standard Deviation
	Not Very Valuable				Very Valuable		
	1	2	3	4	5		
Course planning	3.6	3.0	15.8	31.5	46.1	4.13	1.03
Pacing Classroom Activities	6.1	10.3	20.6	33.3	29.7	3.70	1.17
Designing a Grading System	8.4	7.8	22.9	30.7	30.1	3.66	1.22
Obtaining Feedback from students on your teaching	6.7	8.5	23.8	35.4	25.6	3.65	1.15
Teaching Diverse Students	7.9	9.8	25.6	28.7	28.0	3.59	1.21
Information about Research Reports	9.5	16.9	20.9	23.0	29.7	3.46	1.32
Preparing Tests	12.9	14.7	28.2	23.3	20.9	3.45	1.29
Setting up group projects	10.8	10.8	25.7	32.3	20.4	3.41	1.23
Providing Feedback for students	7.9	14.5	29.7	32.1	15.8	3.33	1.14
Motivating Students To excel	10.9	18.8	26.1	25.5	18.8	3.22	1.26
Working with Adult learners	14.5	15.2	30.3	23.0	17.0	3.13	1.28
Presenting Material	17.4	12.0	26.9	28.7	13.8	3.10	1.29
Leading group discussions	19.3	14.5	21.7	28.3	16.3	3.08	1.36
Doing Introductions	31.3	22.3	21.1	17.5	7.8	2.48	1.31

Table 1A: Univariate Distribution of Variables in Model

Discrete Variables:

Prior Teaching Experience:	N	Percent
No Prior Experience	48	28.7%
Prior Experience	119	71.3
Total	167	100.0%

Geographic Region		
Same as Main Campus	80	47.9%
Different from Main Campus	87	52.1
Total	167	100.0%

Continuous Variables

Perceived need for a Guide to Teaching the Faculty's First Course in Program Scale:
Mean 46.824 Standard Deviation 10.845 Range 51

Number of Courses Taught in History of Program
Mean 7.716 Standard Deviation 9.537 Range 60

Table 2: Bivariate Model Predicting to Perceived Need for a Guide to Teaching the Faculty's First Course in Program Scale

Correlations Between Perceived Need for a Guide to Teaching the Faculty's First Course in Program Scale and Predictor Values

Predictor Variable	Correlation	Significance
Prior Teaching Experience	-.289	p<.001
Number of Courses	.225	p<.05
Different from Main Campus	-.124	No

Table 3: Multivariate Model Predicting to Perceived need for a Guide to Teaching the Faculty's First Course in Program Scale

R Squared=.12, Adjusted R Square=.09, N=124

Predictor Variable	Beta Coefficient	Standard Error	t	Significant
Prior Teaching Experience	-6.93	2.06	-2.87	p<.01
Number of Courses	.184	.099	1.85	p<.05
Geographic Area	-.98	1.93	-.50	No

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Developing, Assessing and Improving Faculty Quality through Peer Review

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SCHOOL OF PROFESSIONAL AND GRADUATE STUDIES

ABSTRACT

An interactive presentation and shared documentation will demonstrate strategies for evaluating and improving faculty performance through active involvement of instructors in the assessment and review process. This paper suggests an approach that has contributed to measurable improvement in faculty performance, quality and integrity of programs at Baker University.

Introduction

A major challenge facing nontraditional adult education programs is maintaining continuity of quality and commitment among adjunct faculty members. As adult programs are increasingly offered at distant sites, effective strategies for developing, assessing and improving faculty performance become paramount. A review of current literature suggests several approaches to this challenge, including internships, mentoring (Paprock, 1987) and administrative review (LeLieuvre and Silverthorne, 1983). Many existing approaches, particularly administrative review, rely heavily on top-down rather than peer-generated involvement. Based upon our experience at Baker University, peer review is recommended as an effective alternative for

enhancing faculty development through increased involvement and interaction. This involvement begins with the selection process for new faculty in which existing faculty members participate on a faculty assessment team.

Faculty Profile and Selection

Baker University offers master's degrees in management, business administration and liberal arts and an undergraduate business degree for adult students in the Kansas City and Topeka regions. Over time, the University has experienced a steady increase in enrollments and, consequently, the number of adjunct faculty required to support its programs. Baker currently employs 150 adjunct faculty who have appropriate academic credentials and meaningful experience in the disciplines in which they teach. All faculty hold a master's degree, and approximately 38 percent hold terminal degrees.

Faculty members are selected through a carefully structured assessment process that evaluates individual presentation skills, group facilitation ability, current knowledge of field and adult student characteristics, and specific academic and professional accomplishments. An assessment team comprised of faculty, administrators and adult students is involved in the selection process. Each team member completes individual evaluation forms as faculty candidates participate in the assessment activities. Following the assessment, the team meets to discuss their observations and make recommendations for appointments.

Of the 25 prospective faculty inquiries received each month, an average of three appointments

are made through this highly selective assessment process. After appointment, new faculty members are provided a Baker University *Faculty Handbook* that outlines policies and procedures as well as suggestions for effectively facilitating classes.

The overall emphasis throughout the faculty selection process is on assuring quality appointments by soliciting feedback from students and faculty who are involved and invested in Baker's programs. This quality focus laid the foundation for initiating and implementing the peer review process.

Peer Review Team: Rationale and Initiation

The University initiated the peer review process in September of 1991 by identifying and appointing a group of superior faculty who demonstrated high commitment and excellent performance. The overall goal was to strengthen faculty quality and institutional effectiveness through increased faculty interaction via peer reviews. Although administrative reviews had been conducted regularly in the classroom, involving faculty in the process was a new approach offering less of an administrative focus.

Criteria for Selection

At the time of initiation of the peer review process, members of the team were appointed for a one-year term by the faculty director, from a list of prospective candidates generated by faculty, students and administrative staff. Selection of team members was based on the following

criteria:

[ ] *Exceptional support for Baker's philosophy, mission and programs*. This criterion was measured by the level of involvement in faculty meetings, curriculum development and refinement, and attendance at Baker University meetings and functions.

[ ] *Excellence in teaching*. Excellence was defined by superior class visitation reports, high ratings on student end-of-course surveys, and informal feedback from students, faculty and administrative staff.

[ ] *Longevity of involvement*. This criterion required that team members had taught a minimum of four courses in Baker's adult programs.

Peer review team members' terms could be renewed, and appointments in subsequent years were to be determined by current peer team members. The number of individuals on the peer team was limited to eight, or 5 percent of the total faculty body. It was believed that limiting involvement to a small number not only would increase prestige associated with membership but also allow for productive, cohesive interaction and dialogue at the monthly peer team meetings.

Responsibilities and Role of Peer Reviewers

Responsibilities. Members of the peer team were required to visit four classes per month, provide written feedback to visited faculty on an evaluation form, and initiate a follow-up "debriefing" call. In addition, monthly peer team meetings were mandatory to share observation

reports and coordinate visits. Peer team members were also encouraged, but not required, to participate in Baker events, particularly commencement exercises, and to serve as mentors to new faculty by hosting them in classes and assisting them with syllabus preparation as needed. In addition, they were considered lead faculty in assisting with accreditation visits, faculty assessments, and faculty development activities. For their time and effort, peer team members were compensated at a higher rate for classes taught during their one-year term.

Role. The role of the peer review team member in completing observations was twofold. The primary role was to serve a *faculty development* function, identifying and reinforcing strengths and offering suggestions for enhancement, if necessary. A secondary role was *administrative* in nature, improving the span of control of the faculty director in reporting noncompliance with administrative policies such as appropriate class start and stop times, adherence to the prescribed curriculum for courses, professional appearance and behavior, etc.

Evaluation Tools. Written evaluation reports were designed with both quantitative and qualitative components and were forwarded immediately after the visit to the faculty director for evaluation, distribution to visited faculty and copying to the permanent faculty file. Quantitative criteria measured on a five-point scale included the following:

[ ] Knowledge of subject matter

[ ] Relating theory to practice

[ ] Instruction/explanation

[ ] Utilizing experience of group members

[ ] Rapport with group

Verbal equivalencies for each of the five ratings were developed in the first peer team meeting so that all members had a common point of reference. Two qualitative criteria were assessed, "Strengths Observed" and "Suggestions for Enhancement." In addition, a section was provided for "Other Comments."

Emerging Concerns

In the early months of the peer review process, concerns emerged both among faculty and among peer team members themselves. The latter group was concerned about the adequacy of the tool used and their own performance in assisting and evaluating peers. According to one peer reviewer, "When initially visited, faculty appeared to be somewhat hostile and suspicious." This, of course, was a concern to peer team members who were new to the role.

Providing helpful feedback to faculty about suggested areas of improvement was a difficult and ongoing challenge. The early morning peer review team meetings, held on a Saturday once a month over breakfast, became an increasingly useful setting for exchanging ideas on effective ways of stating negative messages in a positive light and for brainstorming on new approaches. Team members discussed their visits, shared the feedback approach used and received comments and suggestions from other team members.

Early in the process, some faculty members also had concerns about peer review and viewed the visits as threatening. Some felt spontaneous visits infringed on their academic freedom, and some were concerned about what they perceived to be judgmental feedback. Expressed concerns

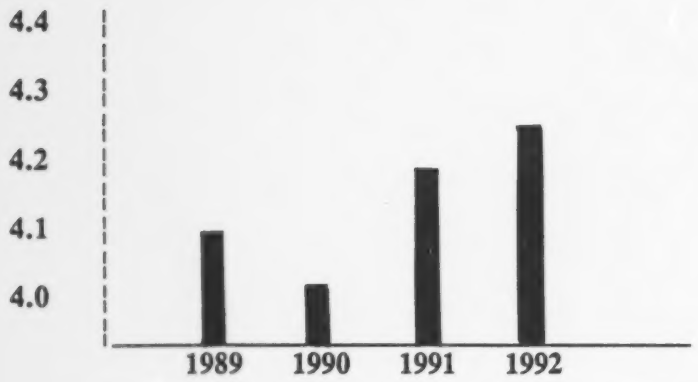
have been infrequent, however, as team members have developed more experience and a higher comfort level with their role. Also, several faculty have recognized the value in receiving feedback and have, on occasion, called to request visits.

Outcomes

In the four years since Baker's off-campus adult programs were first offered, faculty have maintained student end-of-course survey ratings at a level of 4.1, or lower, on a 5-point scale, with the majority of ratings clustered in the 3.8 to 4.4 range.

During the first six months of the peer review process, survey ratings have increased steadily. With consistent incremental increases each month, the overall average faculty rating has risen to 4.3, and in one month during the evaluation period, 50 percent of faculty achieved a rating of 4.8 or above. The increase in ratings over time (*see graph below*) is attributed, in part, to communication and suggestions generated by the faculty peer review process.

Faculty Ratings Over Time



Conclusions

Academic literature provides few examples of well-researched and documented studies in which teaching performance is systematically evaluated by peer faculty for development or governance purposes (Miller, 1987). Although peer review has long been a mechanism used in professional settings, most notably in health care (Dombeck, 1986; Winter, 1990), academic institutions, particularly traditional universities, have been resistant to the concept (Menges, 1991). Nontraditional adult programs provide an optimal environment for utilizing peer review in improving faculty quality as, by the nature of the model, faculty tend to be less concerned about academic freedom and more receptive to new ideas and feedback.

Experience at Baker has demonstrated the value of peer review and strongly suggests that involvement of faculty in assessment and evaluation has helped to strengthen faculty development, program quality and integrity. The peer review process has been successful throughout its first year, and it is offered as a viable approach to developing, assessing and improving adjunct faculty performance in nontraditional adult education settings. This conclusion is, perhaps, best stated by a member of our first peer review team on the completion of her term:

> *The faculty selection process has done an excellent job of assembling a first-rate group of people to teach in these programs. Together with ongoing peer review, it appears that Baker has institutionalized a method that promotes and sustains high quality instruction.*

Faculty also have been increasingly positive in their comments about the peer review process. In a survey of their satisfaction levels with various components of faculty services, 40 percent of faculty gave "peer review" a 5.0 (perfect) rating. Faculty have identified "grading" and "working with study groups" as key areas in which feedback was most helpful.

Recommendations

After one year of working with peer review, several ways have been identified to strengthen the process. The following recommendations were made to the 1992-93 peer review team:

[ ] *Formal orientation of team members.* Based on experience accumulated with the first peer team, a training session will be held for all new members. Terms of two of the original peer team members will be extended so that they can assist in the orientation process.

[ ] *Deemphasis of administrative role.* Ideally, separating the functions of development and control would lessen the anxiety still experienced by some faculty; however, in a program of our size, this is not possible. Rather, reviewers will be asked to emphasize development issues in their reports and delegate administrative ones to staff.

[ ] *Opportunity for faculty response.* A new observation form is being developed to allow faculty a space to respond in writing to feedback (if they so choose).

[ ] *Advance notice.* In the spirit of emphasizing the development function,

team members will notify faculty of scheduled visits. This will also allow the reviewer to request copies of any written material being distributed to students for evaluation and feedback.

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TRACK D:

LEARNING FROM ADVISING, LEARNING FROM STUDENTS

The Dilemma of Practitioner Research: Lessons From Ethnography and Practice

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For faculty and administrators working in adult and alternative higher education, the desire for research on effective practice must often be subordinated to the day to day needs of program delivery and management. Research, when it is done, focuses more on immediate program needs than on the process of learning itself. A question like "What areas of study do our students need?" is asked frequently because programs need to be self-supporting. More complex questions which focus on process and go to the heart of adult education, such as "What happens to the intellectual development of students in a particular type of alternative program that enables them to become independent learners?" are researched less frequently. Because of this, we are left with the dilemma that, while the first types of questions are crucial to immediate program survival, the second are critical if we are to gain the deeper understanding of adult learners and adult programs that are necessary to better serve our students. Yet these second, more qualitative questions are all too often left unasked and unanswered. This paper is written in hopes of furthering the dialogue on approaches which we might use to increase the amount of qualitative research on the process of learning in adult and alternative higher education being done by practitioners in these areas.

A number of researchers, among them, Brookfield (1986), Mezirow (1991) and Daloz (1986) have explored the qualitative nature of the educational experience and called for more practitioner research into the field of adult alternative education. Brookfield, in particular, has called

for a new methodology based on the needs and characteristics of adult education. In this paper, I will explore some of the barriers that exist to doing qualitative research in adult higher education and suggest some possible ways to overcome these barriers by using the techniques of ethnography. It is not meant to be a review of the literature or an attempt to apply ethnography to research among adult learners without adaptation but, instead, a reflection on the lessons that ethnography might offer to practitioner research in this field.

I realize that there is ongoing debate in the literature on ethnography on its function as a research tool and as a literary construct (Tedlock, 1991; Hammersly, 1990; Marcus and Clifford, 1985). This debate, while interesting, is not part of the discussion here. The focus in this paper is on the potential of ethnographic methods as research tools which can help adult educators learn more about their students and programs. The goal of this type of ethnography is to gain a holistic understanding of the situation from the perspective of the group being studied.

Before dealing with the lessons that ethnography can offer to practitioner research, it helps to think about the kinds of questions which qualitative research can address and why these might be useful in program development and evaluation. If we classify our thinking on adult learners on a continuum from broad conceptualizations of the characteristics of adult learners such as those of Knowles (1980) to the kind of reflective analysis advocated by Schon (1987) which focuses on individual practitioner-subject relationships, it is clear that there is a broad middle ground in which a number of researchers (Brookfield, 1986; Daloz, 1986) have done important work but which needs much more exploration. In this middle ground lies the opportunity to ask important questions about the

process of learning and how this process varies for individuals and by type of alternative program. These questions may seem at first glance to be too theoretical to be of use in the day to day operations of our programs but they actually deal with central issues for program development. For example, consider what happens when students apply and are accepted to a program, attend the new student orientation, and then do not register.

Many similar questions could be raised which all include a focus on how the students perceive their experiences. They tend to be open-ended, process-oriented, and with direct or indirect applicability to program development and application. In fact, most practitioners are already evaluating these questions informally. It is in these areas that strategies for ethnographic research offer the opportunity to refine observations and analysis. These research strategies include participant observation, interviews of samples and key informants, and the use of researcher designed instruments. Goetz and LeCompte (1984) have written extensively on the adaptation of ethnography to educational settings, but without any emphasis on questions relating to the study of adult learners. There is definitely room for adaptation to the research needs of programs in adult higher education.

Unfortunately, the need for research does not immediately lead to the lowering of barriers to research. By exploring some of these barriers, we can begin to see that they may be lower than we originally thought. Three potential barriers are lack of trained researchers, lack of time to do research, and problems inherent in doing qualitative practitioner research. Each of these concerns will be considered with an emphasis on overcoming the difficulties.

Lack of people with formal training in qualitative research may seem at first glance to be more of an issue than it really is. Many people

in adult and alternative programs have the academic expertise to ask the kinds of questions that need to be asked if we are to know more about adult learners and adult alternative education. A tremendous advantage of the faculties and administrations of adult programs is that they often bring an interdisciplinary and student-centered rather than discipline centered approach to their work.

I would venture to add that many people who work in this area are already perceptive observers of their students and the learning process. What they need is formal training in qualitative research techniques and in managing the dual roles of practitioner and researcher in order to systematize their observations and insights. This is something which anthropologists traditionally learned "on the job" or "in the field" rather than in the classroom. In fact, very little was published on ethnographic field techniques for the novice fieldworker until the late 1960's.

The second problem, a shortage of time, is a very real issue. Time for research and reflection is in short supply in most alternative programs. Few administrators and faculty of non-traditional programs have the luxury of extended time designated for research. On the other hand, they are immersed on a daily basis in problems which need researching. Many of these problems are directly applicable to the furtherance of knowledge of the field, if the results are examined and published. And while faculty and administrators may not have extended periods of time exclusively for research, they do have an advantage which traditional researchers lack, and that is the ability to study a single issue over time. Again, ethnography offers some insights into what happens when qualitative research takes place over an extended period of time. Typically this includes adjustments in research design, the involvement of

the people being studied in the initial analysis of the data, and a recognition of change over time. The opportunity exists, for example, to follow one cohort of students during their entire program of study. Some of the practices common in ethnographic approaches are not acceptable in experimental research.

In ethnographic work, researchers tend to refine their focus as they work in a community or on a problem for an extended period of time. This occurs because one of the key differences between data collection in ethnographic research and quantitative research is the emphasis on the continuous evaluation of the data during the research period. This analysis often leads to new questions and a reworking of earlier ones. (Goetz and LeCompte, 1984) Thus a study which begins with a question about how to evaluate the relationship of advisor and student may lead to the discovery of different stages within the relationship and may suggest further questions about how best to facilitate the development of that relationship. The same study might suggest natural points of tension during the relationship. By doing long-term research, it might be possible to distinguish between tensions which are productive or unproductive for the student. Daloz (1986), in his reflective analysis of mentoring, does just this, but much more can still be done in this area.

The third concern, that of problems inherent to practitioner research, is the most complex. This concern includes such issues as observer bias, the mixed roles of the observer and the observed, and the multiple goals and understandings that a group of researchers on a common project may have. It is in this area that the experience of ethnographers can proven especially useful by helping us understand the

interactive relationship of researcher and research subject.

Anthropologists have argued at length about whether it is desirable to use ethnographic methods within one's own culture (Messerschmidt, 1981) but there is consensus on the fact that the ethnographic experience is different depending on whether one is an insider or an outsider to the culture. More and more, there is recognition that each type of ethnographic research carries its own rewards and pitfalls. Using ethnographic techniques in practitioner research creates a third situation, where the researcher is not just a member of the culture, but a participant in the process.

Central to ethnography is the relationship between the person doing the research and the people being studied. Obviously, the potential for observer bias is great. In traditional ethnography where anthropologists have studied cultures outside their own, the relationship is that of an outsider attempting to understand the viewpoint or culture of the insider. In doing this, the reaction of the observer to the culture being observed is a crucial part of the analysis. As ethnographic methods have been assimilated by other disciplines like sociology and as anthropologists have begun to study people from cultures more like their own, the distinction between outsider and insider has blurred and it will require more reflection to understand one's own biases in this situation.

Ethnography is a research methodology which has a history of confronting complex and messy issues, such as observer bias. Almost all ethnographic accounts include discussions of the relationship between the people being studied and the people doing the studying. Maintaining field notes and diaries as places to reflect on those relationships is normal practice. In many ways, this is like the kind of reflective practice advocated by Schon (1987).

A related area of concern is the complexity of the role relationships in practitioner research. This, also, is an area which ethnographers have confronted. In ethnographic research, the subject of the research as also seen as the locus of knowledge about the subject and is seen as having the ability to integrate insights as well as provide raw data. The researcher takes on the role as the novice in this relationship. There are, of course, difficulties inherent in accepting the dichotomy of being an expert in one area and a novice in another. For example, a person may be acting as a program advisor in one role, and an ethnographer in another role in the same adult education program.

Practitioner researchers are in an ambiguous position, fitting neither role entirely; they are hired as experts (faculty, administrators) and in an expert relationship to the subjects (students) and yet novices to the world of the students (who may find it difficult to see them as novices to that world as a person clearly from another culture might be). Their own cultural and academic backgrounds are often quite different from those of their students. Practitioners in adult education are usually chosen as practitioners, not researchers: researching may not even be valued, because the internal culture of many adult education departments are action, not reflection oriented. In order for research to be carried out, the problem of engaging the interest of those not interested is crucial. This problem is very much like the situation for the ethnographer who needs data from a reluctant informant: the informant or administrator may need convincing before work can proceed.

Finally, research may also open up departmental tensions. It can be threatening because it looks at systems rather than individual problems. It also makes a top down process shakier because it recognizes all participants as sources of knowledge. There is also the possibility that

research designed to delve into one area will confront organizational tensions that cannot be resolved because of situations external to the program, e.g., adequacy of staffing or poor fit between certain staff and tasks to be accomplished. Ethnographers studying other cultures have certainly confronted these issues, but this is an area where there are no easy answers, and more work needs to be done on resolving conflict in this areas.

Despite these concerns and potential pitfalls, I believe we have far more to gain from taking an ethnographic approach to research in adult higher education than we have to lose. The key is to confront some of the tensions inherent in such research and develop a new paradigm for ethnographic research that will meet the needs of adult and alternative programs in higher education.

By examining some of the barriers to more extensive research on process and suggesting some possible solutions to these barriers based on the experience of cultural anthropologists using the techniques of ethnographic research, I hope that the dialogue on adult learners and learning has been furthered and the possibility has been created for more research in areas which have not been explored extensively to this point. As practitioners, we certainly need to know more about the process of learning and our students can only be helped if we know more about them and their needs.

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Illuminative Evaluation: A Strong Measure of Academic Advising Effectiveness for the Adult Learner

By

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The support of the adult learner on an academic level is a core issue in the higher education reform movement (Schlossberg, Lynch, & Chickering, 1989). The population of adult learners on campuses across the nation is increasing. Given this, it is significant for universities to provide adults with the academic support necessary for satisfaction. The academic advisor is the facilitator of this support. Satisfaction itself is a construct of perceived reality. An in-depth exploration of the adult learner's perceived realities can be conducted successfully through illuminative evaluation. Findings may then be implemented as positive changes in serving the adult learner.

Introduction

> Measurement is one of the most difficult problems to handle in doing research with middle-aged subjects. Most of the instruments we have were designed for either deviant populations or for children. To use these same tools and techniques with an average, "gemutlich," middle-aged American adult is frequently ridiculous (Bischof, 1976, p. 48).

At the turn of the century, evaluation involved testing and measurement. Between 1930 and 1960, the emphasis shifted to evidence centered on performance and program effectiveness. The 1960's generated formative and summative evaluation. In

early 1970, the lack of balance between theoretical and empirical theory was evident, so therefore the nature of evaluation and its limits were researched. Then, in 1970, illuminative evaluation was introduced as a method of investigating problems in educational institutions. This move away from the formal model was made by Parlett at the University of Surrey, England. Critical views were seen as an ongoing process during this period. Qualitative evaluation was introduced in 1980 (Tellep, 1989).

Therefore, until the 1970's, experimental and psychometric modes dominated educational research. These modes have created studies that are artificial and limited. Illuminative evaluation was introduced at this time as a total reappraisal of rationale and techniques of evaluation. Illuminative evaluation follows the anthropological research paradigm (the individual within the culture). Illuminative evaluation is founded upon the theory that innovation cannot be separated from learning, which involves an interrelationship of cultural, social, institutional, and psychological forces. The researcher concentrates on the processes rather than the outcome derived from a part of the educational system. Data are collected from observation, interview, questionnaire, and documentary information. The illuminative evaluation methodology can also include informal interview, group interview, and forced response. Illuminative evaluation, therefore, concentrates on the

gathering of information instead of the decision making component of evaluation. This method can meet the need of theoretical advance and clarify decision making (Parlett & Hamilton, 1972).

Qualitative information can expose underlying attitudes, opinions, and behavior patterns (Byers & Wilcox, 1988). "The growth of qualitative approaches is considered as sign of greater ecumenism of methods and a possible paradigm shift in the qualitative direction" (Fetterman, 1989, p. 38). Quantitative models provide non-numeric descriptions that can be used as a base for explaining and predicting behavior and developing action plans (Clancey, 1986). A holistic description of areas of education and its social validity is provided (Stainback & Stainback, 1988). Illuminative evaluation has two features: (a) low degree of control of variables before the inquiry and (b) low degree of constraints on the outcome. This frees the respondents to describe behaviors, beliefs, and feelings in their setting. Qualitative methods can be used with quantitative methods (Jacobs, 1985). "Social realities are usually too complex, too relative, or too exotic to be approached with conventional conceptual maps or standardized instruments...[qualitative researchers] advocated a more loosely structured, emergent, inductively 'grounded' approach of gathering data" (Miles & Huberman, 1984, p. 27).

Thus, illuminative evaluation has a strong theoretical foundation.

The Evaluator

The traditional roles of technician, describer, and judge are expanded and redefined in current inquiry. A technician is a human instrument and human data analyst. The describer is now illuminator and historian. The judge becomes a mediator. Not only are roles redefined, but they take on new elements: (a) from controller to collaborator, (b) from investigator to learner, (c) from discoverer to reality shaper, and (d) from observer to change agent (Guba & Lincoln, 1989). The researcher uses tacit knowledge. Experience lends significant insight into the practices of academic advising. This knowledgeable insider perspective is necessary to illuminative evaluation.

Sampling

"Perhaps nothing better captures the differences between quantitative and qualitative methods than the different logics that undergird sampling approaches" (Patton, 1990, p. 159). The logic of each is different. The purpose of probability sampling (random and statistically representative) is generalization. Purposeful sampling focuses upon information-rich cases. The central importance of the research issue is emphasized in illuminative evaluation.

"There are no rules for sample size in qualitative inquiry" (Patton, 1990, p. 183). It just seems smaller compared to the size of representative populations. Piaget used only two children in his study on childhood cognition, but it was in-depth. "The validity, meaningfulness, and insights generated from qualitative inquiry have more to do with the information-richness of the cases selected and the observational/analytic capabilities of the researcher than with the sample size" (Patton, 1990, p. 185).

Procedure

Illuminative evaluation employees a four step method of discovery.

1. Observation

Informal remarks are taken from adult learners. The comments are recorded, and questions for the interview are generated from these significant concerns.

2. Open-ended Questionnaire

A questionnaire is then designed by the investigator. The investigator uses both tacit knowledge and observed significant concerns to generated the questions.

3. The Interview

In a qualitative case study, the researcher is the instrument (Karp, 1989). Qualitative research is an open system of inquiry (Lincoln, 1988). "The interview as a research method in survey research is unique in that it

involves the collection of data through direct verbal interaction between individuals" (Borg & Gall, 1983, p. 436). This creates both advantages and disadvantages according to Borg and Gall (1983). Its positive points include (a) adaptability, (b) greater clarity, (c) greater depth, and (d) full disclosure of emotions, both positive and negative. There are also negative aspects: (a) easily misused, (b) subjectivity bias, and (c) interaction bias. Also, it should be noted that unstructured observations of a participant observer can discover areas overlooked by formal instruments (Diaz Soto, 1988). The investigator uses the open-ended interview questions to illicit perceptions from the respondents.

4. Documentation

The investigator asks the permission of each respondent to obtain documentation and background information. This may include student data, transcripts, and artifacts. This step augments the trustworthiness of the study.

Data Analysis

Illuminative evaluation, like all naturalistic research, is inductive in nature. The theory is grounded in the data. Inductive data analysis is used as the method of evaluation. The raw data from the interviews are examined for gross patterns. Those are examined for substantive

patterns. The hypothesis is generated. Once this is all completed, a tentative application can be made.

In illuminative evaluation, an emergent design is used which is indicative of naturalistic research. This research design unfolds from case study guide questions to a more intrusive line of questioning to group each respondent's individual perception of the problem to be researched. Therefore, a cross-case study mode is presented to show context and particulars in thick description (Patton, 1989).

Because the study of academic advising involves perception, the researcher seeks to capture the realities of the individual. In illuminative evaluation's negotiated outcome, as required in all naturalistic research, the researcher reconstructs the realities in the view of each subject. Therefore, the ideographic interpretation will be presented.

A report is the data analysis method for illuminative evaluation. The data are often not numerical. The data are the reports of opinions, stories, experiences, and descriptions. Evidence is significant for analysis: interview notes, observations, questionnaires, and artifacts. These items form the data base. Thus, data analysis and data collection in qualitative research are interrelated. Data analysis is the natural result of the organization of these materials as they will relate to the

formulated and major themes will begin to appear. The data analysis, therefore, will follow content analysis (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Parlett, 1974; Patton, 1990).

Trustworthiness

Illuminative evaluation necessitates a special criterion for trustworthiness. This can be constructed through documentation and a statement of validation for each respondent. The validation statement will confirm the (a) the final draft of individual responses has been read by each subject and (b) the final draft of each individual's perceptions about the problem has been correctly represented by the researcher.

Limitations

The primary limitation of illuminative evaluation is the total reliance on the adult learners' perceptions. Yet, comparable data can be generated from academic advisors and administrators. Most researchers, however, generally agree that reality is based upon individual perceptions: not the perceptions of others (Cross, 1988; Rachman, 1990; Schlossberg et al., 1989). Since academic advising is primarily for the student's benefit, it is logical to rely upon the student's perception of the reality of effectiveness. These perceived satisfactions and/or dissatisfactions, then, may be used as tools of evaluation to improve academic advisor performances.

Conclusion

Significant information can be generated from the data gathered. The nature of illuminative evaluation is such that it should focus the attention of academic advisors and administrators on the quality of their function as an academic unit as perceived by respondents. These findings can be useful to prospective students, students' academic advisors, and administrators. Also, on a larger scale, the data can be helpful to other institutions of higher education where no academic programs for the adult learner exist. For perspective students, the results may help them to gather the courage to actually attend the university. Students may be more open with their academic advisors. Academic advisors, the significant target group, will be provided with information and guidelines concerning the group that will some day become the traditional students. Administrators may use the findings to change the existing program of academic advising toward a program that meets the academic needs of the total student. The adult learner is the student of the future for higher education. Illuminative evaluation will make their academic realities known.

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Questioning Adult Learners

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Asking questions is an important way teachers help students be active learners. It is part of fostering independence and individualization in learning, an approach to education called "mentoring." Since we usually work with our students one at time, we are able to consider carefully the value of our questioning. In order to acquire objective information about this and other aspects of mentoring, we have been videotaping our work and meeting together to look at and understand it. We've isolated "questioning students" from our discussions, and selected illustrative moments. Though we have left much out - for example, students questioning us - we hope to convey the rich possibilities of questions and mentoring.

Questioning for Critical Thinking: SN

The Socratic model of teaching by questioning is not at all unique to mentoring. Indeed, I invoke it no less in my own classroom teaching. However, what distinguishes it in the mentoring interaction is the one-to-one relationship and, therefore, the exclusive focus on a single student. In mentoring, I don't worry whether my questions will be relevant for anyone other than the student with whom I am now engaging.

My questions are derived directly from something my students have written or from something they have said. Most commonly I will ask them to elaborate on their words and further define, explain and support what they have written/said. I explain to

them in advance that I shall be helping them learn by asking many questions. I go on to explain that if I am on target they should be able to come up with an answer that advances our thinking to a more profound level and which may well become a springboard for the next question. At times, I may interrupt the questioning to present some theoretical material or experimental finding (I work with students in psychology) that the students are not likely to be familiar with and which I believe will move the process along. But, the focus is primarily on me probing and getting them to clarify their thinking.

I also explain in advance that my major objective is to help them enhance their critical thinking skills, to become much more conscious about what they mean with the words they use and how they arrive at their conclusion. That requires them to become increasingly disciplined in describing and explaining. For example, they need to pause more often and progress much more slowly in their thinking than they are inclined to do. It is a way of getting them to assess more rigorously what it is they are saying and how it may contribute to the larger question which we are addressing, even when the target of inquiry is what they regard as a rather simple concept or something they assumed to be rather obvious.

I tend to ask questions in batches, one answer leading to the next. Though I want to challenge my students, I see no reason to baffle them, to make them feel inept or stupid. A well crafted question is one to which I think the student is likely to have meaningful answer and which will continue our dialogue.

One way I try to help students remain engaged and capable is to ask them to use what they already know to make more sense of what they are studying, and in turn, to apply what they are studying to make more sense of something they've experienced. This kind of questioning means that although a general topic of study, such as "Child Development" or "Conformity and Obedience," and the assigned reading might be common to many students, the particular curriculum can develop spontaneously and individually for each student. Indeed, I do not anticipate that all students will complete a given study with the same knowledge (because they much choose to emphasize different aspects of it) or with the same levels of understanding (because they bring different levels of investment and talent to it).

Thus, through questions based on the students' individual oral and written responses to the assigned material and their relating it their own experiences and prior learning, unique and active learning occurs. I believe that by focusing my teaching so much on the questioning process, I help my students gain meaning for and ownership of their learning.

Open Questions: IRR

In the video-taped segment showing David, I illustrate the empowerment potential of open-ended questions. David is a substance abuse counselor, working with inmates in the corrections system. The study we're doing on Hispanic Culture reflects interests he's developed in the ethnicities he's encountered among his clients. He's been especially interested in the remarkable respect Puerto Rican inmates show each other

and is curious about its cultural and historical aspects and its relation to other Hispanic cultures.

I probe David with the general opening question "So tell me where you're at in this study." As can be expected, he takes the lead here in directing the discussion. I set the atmosphere by inviting him to summarize his learnings and disclose his feelings and views on the subject matter. The open question allows him to share his learning and feel confident about deepening it.

This exchange is time consuming and focused on the student. There is a danger that the student who has not formulated an opinion, has limited insight or information may feel "on the spot." A student might interpret even open questioning as an oral exam and become anxious. Perhaps this is the cause of David's rapid eye movements and fidgeting. I believe, however, that part of the mentoring process is to guide that agitation into an excitement for learning. Open questions are essential for encouraging students to probe their cognitive, affective and operative domains.

As David shares more of the information he's acquired (it's remarkable how much he remembers without aid of notes or the text), he displays his own questioning process. He starts to develop his own ideas, integrate personal experiences and reflect on prior assumptions. In the last few minutes of the video, David discloses a significant learning point. "I found out I'm much more ethnocentric than I thought I was." David's non-verbal signals indicate the impact that this has for him. As the conversation continues, the open question "Where does this come

from?" refers to the ethnocentric nature that David has discovered. Through this open question, I hope to help him accept this challenging insight he's had about himself and use it for new learning.

More and more, I recognize the power of using questions, including questioning myself, to achieve educational goals. What is the student's motivation for this course? David has stated a professional and personal reason for this study, and therefore he was probably engaged in self-reflection some time before the study began. Would this line of questioning be effective with less reflective students? As students progress, a variety of questioning techniques may be needed. Some students may need directive questions and absolutes (if there are any). At any rate, probing for information by using open questions can lead to deepening students' knowledge while also communicating our interest in and cocnern for their learning.

Three Aspects of Inquiry: JG

Supervised independent study is a rich source of learning about adults as college students. What we learn from scrutinizing work with individual students can perhaps be applied to classroom teaching. I will discuss three aspects of inquiry shown in a taped session: asking "on target" questions; engaging student learning; knowing about the individual student.

Dennis, a successful radio personality, is planning to enter the helping professions. Studying the psychology of adult development, he's read current standards and interviewed two

women about whom he then wrote a paper which I read prior to our taped session.

1. Asking "on target" questions. Two indications that my inquiries are on target are direct student comments indicating understanding and his adding to the discussion with illustrations of his own. To understand these signs, I would invoke the concept of "readiness," though it is usually associated with early childhood education. Successfully engaging in dialogue requires questions that find the students' readiness point, where they stand between mastery and new knowledge. A student's excitement in a discussion can indicate that our exchange is at this point.

2. Questions that engage student learning. Questions on the student's paper are valuable by because they form jumping-off points for discussion. These discussions further the student's thinking; they also help me decide what kinds of questions I might ask about subsequent assignments. Based on my reading of his paper, I ask Dennis a series of questions about how he might find out more about issues he's raised, and how he might focus his interviewees' attention more thoroughly on certain topics. He's prompted to probe and evaluate his own learning so far, and thus to extend it.

3. Knowing about the individual student. There is educational value in familiarity with student work, prior experience and learning. Learning is most meaningful when it is individual to the student. Our increasing knowledge of students as individuals provides a rich resource for enhancing learning.

Dennis, for example, feels uncertain about entering a new career and field of study. But I knew that in his radio career he'd done some news interviews, mainly with musicians, and I question him about what parallels exist between those experiences and the interviewing he's now learning. His excitement and satisfaction with these connections, as well as his growth in confidence, are evident on the tape.

The questions we ask students help us find out what they are ready to learn, help them reflect critically and productively on new learning, and tie their academic learning to their own concerns and backgrounds.

Connecting Agenda: LH

Questions both provoke a process of inquiry and define its content. I express my agenda through my questions, but students have their own agenda. As a mentor, I want to make their curiosity the center of my questions, but I must also include my judgments about what will best further my students' learning. Can we productively connect our agenda?

Michelle has been reading Thoreau. A free spirit in a hi-tech society, she manages an inventory system in a large manufacturing operation, does leatherwork, rides a Harley, and is interested in Native American cultures. Having recently completed a study of human rights issues, she's now studying the Transcendentalists because she's curious about cultivating a spiritually satisfying life in a complicated ordinary world.

My agenda includes helping Michelle become more precise in reading and in developing her general ideas. I want her to apply

the careful connecting and distinguishing she must use in her computer and leather work to her philosophizing. We had decided to devote a meeting to discussing closely "Civil Disobedience." Within that framework, I open our session by asking her what she wants to discuss. There follows a series of questions I ask about Thoreau's essay, culminating in Michelle saying she's found passage revealing "the heart" of his ideas. After reading the passage aloud, she comments that it also has to do with his discussion, in Walden, of living a fulfilled life, and with her own views, which she'd expressed at the end of her prior study on human rights.

Now, I confront a choice: Do I ask her more specific questions about the passage of text she's just read aloud? Do I ask her about the connections she wants to make to other texts and her own ideas? Do I ask for my agenda, or hers? I choose hers, asking about her ideas and connections. This moment occurs a few minutes into a discussion lasting more than a hour thereafter. I continue to ask Michelle about the connections she's making between Walden's themes of living "deliberately" and not like a machine, those in "Civil Disobedience" of the authority of the law and the justice of disobeying it, and her own ideas about living both freely and responsibly.

It fascinates me that having given her room through my questions to articulate her own interests, the tension I had felt between her agenda and my own disappears. Though I don't know how manipulated she feels by my questions, it does seem to me that both of us are accommodated. Michelle seems to engage quite

readily with my asking her closely about, for example, the differences between Thoreau's ideas and her own and about reasons for their differences. At the end of our session, she seems to understand precisely and coherently Thoreau's ideas and her own.

Is there a general principle here? If we make our questions closely follow the line of curiosity our students suggest, shall we necessarily also serve well values on the traditional academic agenda, such as reading and thinking carefully, and achieving stimulating, memorable encounters with important ideas?

Frequency and Types of Questioning: XC

How often do we ask questions? What kinds do we ask? Whereas for some in our faculty group questioning students may be the heart of mentoring, I had supposed that for myself, it was identifying and explaining matters important to the student. I wasn't even sure if questions were a significant part of my interactions with students.

The only way to find out, of course, was to examine my work with students. I therefore analyzed videoed sessions of 9 different students recorded over 3 different days during a 6 week period. The selection of students was essentially random, but turned out to be quite representative of the range of my students. Of the five women and four men studying a variety of topics, three were new to the college, three has finished some studies, one was on his final contract for an associate's degree, and two on their final contract for baccaulaureate degrees. The sessions ranged from 39 to more than 60 minutes with an average length of 54.5 minutes.

The data surprised me. Were I primarily an "information provider," I would expect most of the time in these sessions to be taken up with my talking. In fact, I spoke on average significantly less than half (40.6%) of the time ranging from a low of 25% to a high of 56%. Interestingly, I spoke a greater amount of time with the women students (44.9%) than with men (35.2%). I also found that I asked a lot of questions: on average, more than 74 questions per hour!

The kinds of questions I asked varied considerably. They can be tentatively broken into these broad categories: personal, procedural, rhetorical, and content-oriented. Personal questions had nothing to do with the study or the college (e.g. "How is your father?"). Procedural questions were subdivided into those related to college matters - "When do you expect to enroll again?" - and those related to the study at hand - "How many papers did we decide upon?". Rhetorical questions were those for which no answer was expected: "Is that true?" or "Oh, really?". Content-oriented questions were subdivided into three categories: subject-based ("What do you mean by 'attribution theory?"); those in which in the subject matter is related to the student's experience ("How does this concept describe the learning you've seen in your children?"); and general questions for which no immediate response is required ("How will these books address some of the problems in your agency?"). Overall, the vast majority of questions, 73%, had to do with the content of the study. 16.6% focused upon procedural matters, 5.4% were rhetorical, and 5% were personal.

Given the intimacy of a mentoring relationship, the small percentage of personal questions might seem surprising. However, these percentages are for only my questions, not the amount of time actually spent talking about these categories. Much of what I know about my students they tell me without my asking. Indeed, as I watched the tapes, I saw that a good number of my "content" questions were really efforts to convert some strictly personal remarks by the student into content-related if not strictly academic concerns.

Clearly, a thorough analysis of these videotapes must eventually include what the student says, as well as other forms of mentor contribution. These few statistics do provide a framework from which to consider the role of mentor questions and suggest lines of further research on mentoring in general and its educational value.

ACADEMIC ADVISING AS A BASIS FOR PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT

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The Regional Advising Service at the University of Minnesota-Morris (UMM) in west central Minnesota has existed as an advising center since 1975. It is a first step, one-stop advising service for regional adults seeking access to structured opportunities to learn through the University of Minnesota (UM)--during the day, in the evening, or without class attendance. The Advising Service is a program of the Morris Center for Continuing Education, relating administratively and programmatically to the University of Minnesota-Morris where it is housed, and to Continuing Education at the University of Minnesota-Minneapolis where it is fiscally based.

History

The history of the Regional Advising Service is of central importance to this paper because the Advising Service is a continually developing program, and that development has come about through use of data gathered through academic advising. Let me briefly review the early stages of the program's history, put them in context, then expand at greater length on the data we gathered through advising and how it led to program expansion.

In 1974 the Minneapolis based University Without Walls (UWW) program established an outreach center in rural Minnesota for its individualized baccalaureate program. This program is a genuinely external program, relying on academic self-direction and individualized learning projects overseen by individual faculty and UWW academic advisers. The 1990-91 Alliance president, Dr. Catherine Marienau, was the pilot coordinator; I was the on-site academic adviser. During the pilot year and every year thereafter, staff kept detailed records of the numbers of prospective students who contacted us as well as what they requested. By the end of 1974, the interpretations of the collected data provided staff with a basis for expanding the UWW pilot into a more broadly based advising service.[1]

In 1975 the Regional Advising Service (then called the Morris Learning Center) was initiated to offer a broader range of learning options, both long and short term, than UWW alone provided. Since then, as needs became recognized through looking at our requests in the context of our mission, we added learning options such as independent study, video courses, and prior learning evaluation. Today, the Regional Advising Service centralizes information on traditional and nontraditional education. Advisers join individuals in <u>their</u> process of learning. The questions raised through this process are explored with other staff and provide a basis for program development.

The Context

Academic advising and program development take place within an educational, geographic, and personal context. Institutional parameters, geography, the nature and numbers of the population, the missions and standards of the colleges and whether administrators are successful in gaining access to grants will each contribute to whether programs can be developed, even when the data supply a rationale for developing them. Fine ideas for program expansion may not be appropriate for all institutions.

Geographic Context: Western Minnesota is sparsely populated. The 60 mile radius of Morris expands through 14 counties and into South Dakota. Half of the communities have fewer than 500 inhabitants. Distance and an uncertain weather environment are daily realities.

Institutional Context: The University of Minnesota has over 30 colleges and a well developed continuing education program, including extension correspondence study. In addition, there are 15 two year, four year and technical colleges in western Minnesota; most are located an hour or more distant from one another. Much of the expansion we initiated has been possible because of inter-institutional cooperation among western Minnesota colleges.

Personal Context: Programs must relate to the nature and number of the population. During the first decade, the majority of the adults we worked with from western Minnesota were the first generation in their families to pursue a college degree. During the UWW pilot year, I wanted to know how educational barriers functioned in the lives of these adults. Each of the prospective students faced barriers the UWW program was designed to overcome; each adult had baccalaureate goals; yet some adults applied to the program and others did not. This question-how barriers function-and the answers to it are pivotal to my advising and much of the program development that followed. Dr. Marienau and I applied for a small grant to conduct what we now refer to as "the barrier study", she as principal investigator and I as administrator.

The barrier study taught us that situational barriers, such as access, finances, and time, can often be overcome by external sources, whereas value related barriers, such as family responsibilities and motivation, require personal readjustments by the adult learner.[2] This finding became the touchstone for our advising and program development.

Methods

As professional advisers, we develop methods to keep track of our programs. Most of us are surrounded by more information than we can reasonably use; in Morris, we have advising files extending back to 1974. Much of what advisers do informally can provide a solid foundation for program development, if we can find the time to reflect on it in practitioner lives crowded with immediate deadlines.

The primary data gathering methods we use in Morris are 1) the tallies of student contacts already mentioned; 2) the interpretation of interviews; and 3) informal needs assessments of several kinds.

1) Tallies of advising contacts:

About 450 prospective students each year contact the Regional Advising Service by mail, by phone or in person. Our easily accessible advising summary sheets record our interactions. The front page identifies personal information (name, address, phone, sex, area of interest); characterizes the method of inquiry; identifies the information sent out and summarizes when and how staff responded. This information is tallied on a quarterly and annual basis and studied for changes. Tabulations are designed to tell us about the level of advising activity and its intensity, to help us track interest areas and desired methods of delivery, and to identify special populations we might be able to serve.

For example, after the first 8 months of the pilot, 176 requests for information had resulted in 10 persons being admitted to the UWW program. The other prospective students either were not ready to make a decision or felt UWW could not serve their needs. Our tabulations of materials distributed showed that 121 resource materials other than UWW materials were distributed on the adviser's initiative. Tabulations documenting client interest in information about shorter term learning methods were central to the thrust of our proposal to expand to a broader advising service in 1975.

2) Expansion through the study of interview data:

Generally, we review tabulations along with information stemming from advising interviews. The content of advising interactions is summarized on the reverse side of the advising summary sheet and provides the second source of information for program expansion. The information we usually cover in an intake advising conference includes the following categories:

educational barrier
educational background of the advisee
additional experience (e.g., job, volunteer work),
goal (professional, academic and/ or personal),
area of academic interest,
ideas for implementation of goals (adviser's or advisee's).

We developed these categories in the pilot year as we wrote our notes about interviews with prospective students, then compared across interviews to find common themes. In the initial conference, the prospective student tells us what he/she wishes to tell us and we ask questions about what we need to know. Loosely speaking, the advisee-adviser interview is an unsequenced structured interview, in which the categories are consistent and each is eventually covered, but the pace and order may be

determined by the advisee. A few years ago when I formally studied qualitative methodology based in anthropology, I was struck with similarities between the research process for conducting structured interviews and the research-like process we follow. Most advisers use intuitive methods which can be structured and built into the data collection process. We can bring greater form to our process by reviewing our notes periodically, writing down special observations, and talking over our tentative impressions with other staff.

We have not found it necessary to change our interview discussion categories since 1974. I am convinced that's because we arrived at the categories inductively, through listening to what many advisees wished to tell us. The areas of discussion haven't changed, though we have more resources in 1992 to address them.

Development of the LAHS major: For example, during the pilot months, 18 of 176 prospective students (10%) indicated an interest in the social sciences. We learned through interviews that most of them were asking for an area of study that would qualify them to work in Human Services fields and would provide them with an opportunity to undertake applied work as part of the major. When this information was shared with the psychology coordinator, he responded with a proposal to initiate a Liberal Arts for the Human Services major based in sociology, psychology, and other relevant courses across the curriculum. There were 7 LAHS graduates in 1978. In 1992, LAHS is UMM's second largest major; of 376 1992 graduates, 46 (12%) were LAHS majors.[3]

New registration methods: Keeping track of requests through interviews also led to the introduction of new registration methods to facilitate summer study and prior learning evaluation. E.g, based on his advising contacts, my colleague wanted to make individualized registrations more accessible in summer; he negotiated a formula for paying supervising faculty not on summer appointment, implemented a registration through Continuing Education, and designed a standard form. The number of students registered in undergraduate individualized arrangements over the summer rose from 1 in 1978 to 122 in 1990.[4]

Educational planning course: These suggestions for program development rose from advising. Some of the projects focused on improving the advising process as well. I've learned over the years that adults make decisions when the circumstances of their lives are right and when there is a program available that suits their needs. Yet, in individual advising cases in the mid 1980's, even when the circumstances seemed right and the programs provided appropriate options, a few adults with whom I was meeting were not choosing to pursue their options. Something else seemed to be at work. I sent a personal invitation to the students I was concerned about, offering to talk further. Those who came back told me that they were overwhelmed with their options and didn't know where to begin. They wanted steps spelled out--a process for decision making.

Dr. Marienau, our consultant under a Title III grant at the time, suggested that we expand a prior learning evaluation course we were developing together into an educational planning course. The two credit course, which I have taught since 1985, is built around readings in adult development, inventories such as Kolb's Learning Style Inventory and the World of Work, and reflective questions/ exercises. It provides a process for exploring values and daily parameters as a basis for considering educational choices, and it does so in the company of other adults. The consistently high course evaluations suggest that this structured group advising process works. Most of the adults in the class have had goals and circumstances out of harmony with each other. With the exception of only a handful who faced an unusual number of obstacles, all made decisions about what, when and how they would pursue further study.

3) Informal needs assessments:

In the preceding example, the advising staff made use of information about advisee requests combined with information emerging from adviser-advisee interaction discussed within the staff. In the case of the educational planning course, we also consulted with an expert in the field. We consistently find it helpful to consult others: with experts or with the staff of other colleges; with advisory committees composed to reflect the nature of the program under consideration; and with participants or prospective participants. These resource contacts invariably enrich program development, shaping or reshaping the program to the targeted audience.

Evenings on campus for rural women: For example, throughout our service period, the special needs of rural women have been apparent. Two-thirds of our advising contacts for over 15 years have been with women. The Morris Center for Continuing Education wanted to initiate special programs for women. After visiting with staff of new women's programs within the state, we knew that women's needs varied across regions and that we had to determine the special needs of women in west central Minnesota.

It was apparent in our advising interactions and from the barrier research that many women in western MN found it difficult 1) to travel to the campus because of their responsibilities with small children and 2) to make decisions in their own behalf because of the high value they placed on meeting family priorities before meeting personal priorities. We began by offering special "evenings on campus" especially for women. Over 150 women from throughout the area came for the first of a series of programs which featured a successful woman keynoter as role model, a choice of brief woman-centered workshops, and time for social contact. With the success of these programs, we began to work with area colleges to cooperatively deliver programs similar to evenings on campus to women in their own communities.

Women's Mobile Campus: The Women's Mobile Campus, funded through Title I of the Higher Education Act, brought faculty, resources, and information from college campuses to women living in seven rural Minnesota communities in outreach versions of evenings on campus.[5]

The programs were planned with the help of local advisory committees whose women members had been identified by local educational personnel as community leaders. The programs were based on the premise that if women became acquainted with available learning resources, they would be able to overcome their barriers and make personal decisions about them more easily.

At the end of the first year, the advisory groups met together with the programmers to evaluate the project and to plan for the second year. They suggested that rural women have barriers related to their attitudes, values, and feelings of self-concept which prevent them from setting or realizing goals. For example, a mother of young children who must travel 150 miles to participate in a two-week program to update her teacher certification will need access to family finances, help with children, and perhaps use of the family car. Or a woman in a small town may want to apply for a job for which she is well qualified, but she will be reminded that her acceptance of such a position would prevent a man with a family from moving to town to broaden the tax base.

Phase II of Women's Mobile Campus addressed values directly. A follow-up study our staff conducted showed that "women are better able to make decisions about their lives when they are aware of the relationship between their values and their personal and professional goals."[6]

Table 1
Women's Mobile Campus Participation[7]

AGE	PHASE 1		PHASE 2	
	Female	Male	Female	Male
Under 21	10		23	
21-35	314	2	241	1
36-55	244	4	271	
Over 55	45		144	
Total	**613**	**6**	**679**	**1**

Rural Women Mean Business, funded through the Governor's Council for Rural Development, provided programs to help women become economically independent. It trained women in the design of economic plans and provided small grant seed money for them to begin their own businesses. This project was also suggested by the combined advisory committees. Over twenty regional businesses were initiated as a result of this grant.[8] Rural Women Mean Business and Women's Mobile Campus received the Long-Term Creative Programming Awards from the National University Continuing Education Association, Division of Continuing Education for Women in 1984 and 1981.

Grants with other post-secondary institutions: Through grant projects such as Women's Mobile Campus, we worked creatively with advisers and faculty of area colleges to deliver programs we would not have been able to deliver alone. A 1983 FIPSE advising project encouraging inter-institutional cooperation brought together many of the methods I've already discussed: tabulations, experience of advisers from more than one institution, inter-institutional cooperation. A comprehensive advising questionnaire was sent to 15 colleges in western Minnesota in 1983, asking advisers to characterize their service to adults. This questionnaire was written by advising personnel at UMM and was checked through interviews with staff at participating colleges. An identical questionnaire was distributed in 1989 for comparative purposes, providing a profile of this region during the adult explosion. The composition of the student profile has changed dramatically to include larger numbers of adult students, and more services for adults, such as child care, are available. But the comparison shows that in spite of the improvements, most adults in western Minnesota can attain their educational goals in 1992 only through attending the day program. The most common delivery method is still the traditional classroom.[9]

Repeating questionnaires or evaluations at intervals can provide interesting comparable information that a single effort will miss. We have made it a point to share the resulting study with the participating institutions as a basis for them to determine whether additional services to adults can be implemented.

Summary: The basic methods the Regional Advising staff have used to support program development based in advising are tabulations of data gathered through advising contacts and staff interpretations of advising interviews. In making use of these data for program development, we have enlisted the help of consultants and advisory committees. Our program development initiatives have included ongoing academic programs (such as new majors and short term learning options) and new delivery systems (registrations, programs delivered to regional communities, cooperation with other colleges). Early research on situational and value-related educational barriers shaped how we approach advising and influenced the kinds of programs we develop. In the 1970's, our programs were designed to help overcome situational barriers; in the 1980's and 1990's, we have designed programs to help adults identify the values affecting their educational choices.

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1. Karla Klinger, "Proposal for a Morris Learning Center within Continuing Education and Regional Programs at the University of Minnesota, Morris" (Morris/ University Without Walls, October, 1974).

2. Catherine Marienau, "Study of Barriers to Participation in Post Secondary Education as Perceived by Adults in West Central Minnesota" (Morris Learning Center, University of Minnesota, 1975).

3. Data supplied by Nancy Mooney, Dean's Office, University of Minnesota Morris, September 1992.

4. Data supplied by Thelma Wilson, Registrar's Office, University of Minnesota Morris, September 1992.

5. The rural Minnesota communities in Phase I included Alexandria, Barnesville, Elbow Lake, Fergus Falls and Wheaton. The rural Minnesota communities in Phase II included Barnesville, Elbow Lake, Fergus Falls, Morris, and Ortonville.

6. Madeline Maxeiner, G. K. Nelson and K. M. Klinger, "Women's Mobile Campus: A Profile of the Relationship Between Values, Decision-Making and Goal Setting for Rural Women Participants in the 'Sense of Direction' Series (Paper delivered at the Research by Women Conference, University of North Dakota, October 1982), pp. 7-9.

7. Discussion and Table 1 taken from Karla M. Klinger, Gail K. Nelson, and Madeline Maxeiner, "Women's Mobile Campus," in Educational Horizons, Vol 61, #3, pp. 129-132.

8. Anne Steward Uehling, Rural Women Mean Business Final Report, 1985.

9. Karla Klinger with Carrie Grussing. Internal report. ENLIST--A Comparative Survey of 15 Western MN Post-Secondary Institutional Resources," December 1989.

Factors Contributing to the Importance of Advisors

by

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At Mary Baldwin College, faculty serve as advisors. As the Adult Degree Program has surpassed in head-count the traditional students, there has been the need for faculty advisors to do more teaching, while the institution struggles to cope with the growing number of advisees. The purpose of this paper is to confirm the importance of advising, especially as it supports our long distance, independent learners.

Although there is a growing recognition of the usefulness of good advising for all students, situations in which advising is threatened by lack of resources are not new. In an argument to preserve "counselling" as a role separate from "tutoring" in the Open University at Sheffield University, Nicholson, as early as 1976, stated that "The supposed 'rationalization' of the merging resources for advisory counselling, testifies that the prevailing view of counselling with the Open University is that it is a dispensable accessory to the 'proper' business of teaching." Whether Nicholson is referring to "academic advising", "personal counselling", or a mix of the two, when institutions come under stress, there may be a parallel in the attitudes toward both - as "dispensable accessories to the 'proper' business of teaching". Last year in the proceedings of Alliance's convention, Ed Bunnell stated

> . . . . Advising is the weakest link in the chain of academic efforts at most universities. Yet it remains

> extrememly important. It is the function that brings together the goals of the institution and of the student and tries to weld them together into a single strand. Or, to put it another way, teachers are micro-managers in education. They direct the students development in one or perhaps a few courses. Advisors are macro-managers. They direct the student in planning a curriculum of study. It demands concern, commitment, training and expertise. Few faculty do it well, and most avoid it as much as possible.
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> p.139

Until relatively recently, attention paid to advising seems to have been negligable. In an early review of literature by Verner (1964) on reasons for adult students dropping out, of the 46 factors reviewed, not one referred to the quality of advising. By contrast, in 1986 in a survey responded to by 29 administrators of student services from midwestern public institutions, Spicer reported that advising was falling from number one on their list of priorities to number three, behind recruitment and marketing. As long as the issue fluctuates somewhere at the top of administrators' lists of important functions, it would appear that our students are probably better off than they were in 1964, but without data from us to support the need for advising, there is nothing to guarantee that it will remain recognized.

While "retention" is not the only reason we see for offering quality advising, it is the reason that seems to have prompted most studies pointing to its usefulness. Before we recount some of these studies, it seems appropriate to point out that although most of them deal with traditional students, Weidman (1985) noted that models developed from research on traditional students do work for non-traditional adults, in that he was able to correctly classify 81% of the adult population (N=724) at Youngstown State University into "persister" and "non-persister". Among the

reports on traditional advising, Noel (1983) observed that institutions with high persistance rates placed significantly more emphasis on academic advising, and that this factor seemed much more important than number of faculty with Ph.D.'s, student-faculty ratio, library holdings or accreditation. In a study investigating reasons leading toward attrition Glennen (1985) reported that students who leave tend to be freshmen and sophomores who have not had enough attention, and that a more "intrusive" advising system reduced attrition, especially in freshmen with low ACT scores. Vowell (1987) reported that 58 of 59 students involved in more intrusive advising recommended that it be maintained for other students; Appleton (1983) reported a drop in requests for waivers at graduation time as well as a drop in attrition; Smith (1983) reported that non-persisters listed "better counseling and advising" as the number one factor that might have encouraged them to stay; Kroll (1990) reported a general increase in satisfaction on the part of both the students and faculty in response to a multifaceted approach to improved advising. In summary, a number of studies support the advantages of good advising with traditional students; it is our belief that adult non-traditional students, being at a distance and without the support of a community of learning around them, would register the effects of advising even more.

Method

Initial and follow-up surveys were sent to 30 traditional seniors (average age 23), 30 young non-traditional seniors (average age 24), and 30 more non-traditional seniors ranging in age

from 30 - 70 (average age 43). We tried to match, in age, the group of young tradtitional students with one group of young adult students, as well as include a group of more typically aged adults.

Hypotheses

1. Students in the adult program, more than students in the traditional program, would rate their advisor as important to the completion of their program.

2. This belief would increase as their distance from the institution increased.

3. This belief might increase as their age increased.

4. Students who were closer to the institution might see their advisor as more accessible.

5. Students who saw their advisor as more accessible would be more satisfied.

6. Students who saw their advisors more often, or for more accumulated time, would be more satisfied with their advising experience.

7. Students who valued their advising experience would use it more often, or for more accumulated time.

8. Students in the traditional and adult degree programs would define "advising services" differently.

Results

When asked to rate the importance of advisors on a scale from 1 - 5, with "5" indicating "extremely important", the three groups did not differ significantly, although the results were in the expected direction: young traditional students' $\underline{M}$ = 3.79, young Adult Degree Program students' $\underline{M}$ = 4.13, and "across the

age span" ADP students' M = 4.26. The tendency of the traditional student to see advisors as somewhat less important was paralleled by their lower response rate to the survey, i.e., only 14 as compared to the 23 responses from the young ADP students and 19 from the older ADP students. The correlation between the rating of "importance of advisor" with the students' distance from their advisor was a -.05. The correlation between age and importance was .126. When students were asked how accessible their advisors were, there was a -.14 correlation between accessibility and distance. The correlation between accessibility and satisfaction, however, was .56. There were no significant differences between groups in satisfaction: On a scale from 1-4, with "4" indicating "satisfied, would not change" the means of the young traditional and the young non-traditional students were 3.42 and 3.43, respectively, and the older non-traditionals, 3.57. The correlations between number of times seen and amount of time seen with satisfaction was .009 and .13, respectively. The correlations between the rated importance of the advising experience and the number of contacts and accumulated amount of time spent getting advice were both .43.

The largest differences between perceptions of the traditional and ADP students were evident when students were asked to describe services rendered by advisors: the traditional students mentioned being counseled in light of their future career plans and helped to schedule their courses; ADP students, on the other hand, described being kept informed of academic regulations, the importance of getting that information from someone in authority (not just another student) and having an advisor who was

available to answer questions, point out options and obstacles, lay out one's whole academic plan and encourage one to stay on a time line. When students were asked what differences they noticed in advisors, if they had had more than one in their college careers, ADP students again revealed their goal orientation: the recurring issue was whether or not the advisor kept tabs on one's progress. In summary, there was an urgency expressed by the students in the Adult Degree Program about pursuing their education efficiently that was not evident in the traditional students.

Discussion

Students in the adult degree program tended, but not to a significant degree, to rate advising as more important to the completion of their degree than students in the traditional program. (All tended to rate it high.) A significantly larger proportion of non-traditional students (70%) responded to the survey on advising than did traditionals (47%); this could be interpreted as the adults greater concern for the issue. To our surprise, distance seemed to have nothing to do with how important the advisor was to the student ($r = -.05$) And judging from the correlation between accessibiltiy and distance (-.13) accessibility, in the eyes of the student, has to do with "availability", and, perhaps, emotional responsivity. This is in line with a number of studies that list emotional supportiveness as a necessary component of a good advisor. Gillett and Duncan (1991) reported that students judged it third in importance, after competence and respect, from a series of ten advisor tasks. Beasley-Fielstein (1986) reported results that emphasize the

importance of "accessibility" even more: immediately after "efficiency", students valued the fact that the administration cared about the students, that there were "open doors" suggesting that the students were welcomed, that advisors took personal interest, were available, had time, called the student by name, asked more than "yes-no" questions, etc. Both groups of students in our survey, mentioned "emotional support" with approximately equal frequency.

From the data collected in this study we had hoped to be able to say, "Look, it is obvious that distance is a factor which makes students need advising more", but the results are not that simple. The main difference between the traditional and nontraditional students' perceptions of their advisors was not in the distance separating them, but in the students' perceptions of services provided, and these seem to have been dictated not so much by distance as by their "place in life": the traditional students were still living on campus, looking for clues as to their niche in life, while adults' perceptions grew out of a context of self-supported, independent learning that had to compete with work and family responsibilities. In other words, the factors that contribute to the importance of advisors lie in the needs of the students: While all students need accessible advisors, at Mary Baldwin College, the traditional students focused on scheduling and getting advice on career goals, while the adult students focused on getting advice that would help them proceed in the most efficient and timely manner.

While this study reports groups averages, many survey

responses expressed very individual sets of needs. In closing, we would like to suggest that advisors ask each advisee what kind of service he or she would find useful. If we serve as guides, it would be helpful to know whether our client isn't certain where he or she should be headed, or simply needs a periodic call to help keep him or her on track. If we do it right, the way for the student may be more decipherable, less isolated, and perhaps he or she will be encouraged to complete the trip. If we are too busy doing other things, these good experiences will simply be less likely.

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TRACK E:

CONSIDERING THE INSTITUTION--
PLACE AND POLICY

Library Services for Adult Students: What Difference Do They Make?

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Adult students are an increasingly significant group on the campuses of American colleges and universities. The U.S. Department of Education projects that by 1996 almost half of all students enrolled in higher education will be over twenty-five, and at some institutions, adults students will represent over half of all students enrolled.[1] Since they represent such a substantial part of the student population, adult students should be expected to be major users of academic libraries.

Access to library resources and developing skills in their use are important elements of the academic experience for all students. Yet, adult students experience so many barriers to the use of the library that their use is in no way equal to their numbers. Their previous experiences with libraries, probably at the elementary or high school level, may have been at best limited or at worst of poor quality. They often lack well-developed information retrieval skills, and competing demands for the limited time of adult students leave little room for mastering library use through trial and error. To make matters worse, the recent and rapid introduction of information technology has so radically changed libraries that even adult students with strong academic backgrounds find that previously learned skills are minimally useful. This lack of skills leaves students ill-prepared to meet their information needs and undermines their confidence in their research abilities. Well-intentioned faculty, aware of the obstacles adult student must overcome, decrease their expectations for independent inquiry and sometimes even for outside writing assignments. Students find ways to complete required

assignments without depending on libraries, but in the process also miss the opportunity to gain important skills for lifelong learning.

Insuring adequate access to library resources for adult students should be an issue of keen interest to adult educators. Traditionally, the library has been considered the "heart of the university". Research and the library resources supporting it are important measures of quality in higher education. Strong library involvement by students in continuing higher education programs shows that these programs belong to the higher education mainstream, and that they uphold the same standards as traditional programs. Equitable library access for students in nontraditional programs reassures both students and the larger institutions that these programs are "real". Increasingly, regional accrediting agencies are requiring that institutions provide library resources for nontraditional programs as well as for traditional on-campus programs. [2]

Unfortunately, most academic libraries have not responded to the special needs of adult students. With problems of budget reductions, rising serial and book costs, and increased demands to provide access to information technology competing for scarce resources, few libraries have been able to critically examine the information needs of adult students, establish special program for them, or even restructure existing programs to meet those needs. Special programs to serve the needs of adult students are seldom regarded as central to the library's mission. Within the larger profession, a group of librarians interested in nontraditional students meets regularly at the Off-Campus Library Services Conference sponsored by Central Michigan University to discuss issues of concern. The Association of College and Research Libraries has established an Extended Campus Services section which has developed standards for library services to nontraditional programs. [3]

In order to design library services to effectively meet the needs of this population, adult

educators and librarians must work together. First, they must explore and understand the experience of adult students in the library. Then, they must combine their resources to provide quality programs to this important group of students. Over the past seven years, the Northwestern University Library and Northwestern's University College have conducted a unique experiment in the delivery of library services to adult students called the Schaffner Project. This branch of the University Library, located in the University's downtown campus, serves adult students attending class in University College (Northwestern's undergraduate adult/continuing education program), the Managers' Program of the Kellogg Graduate School of Management, and the Medill School of Journalism. When faced with the need to provide library services to these programs, Northwestern chose to intensely examine the information needs of adult learners and to develop innovative library services to meet them.

During the past two years, a major grant from the W. K. Kellogg Foundation has made the expansion, refinement, and evaluation of these programs possible. The Library, originally built in 1927, was renovated to meet the demands of contemporary library services. A year long evaluation of Schaffner's programs and services was undertaken to describe the experiences of adult learners in the library and to assess the impact of Schaffner's programs on adult students.

THE ADULT LEARNER IN THE LIBRARY

Since understanding adult learners and their experiences in the library is a critical first step in designing appropriate and effective library services for them, we first observed and analyzed the behavior of this group in their work at Northwestern. Typical of adult learners, the students are ambitious, self-motivated, and energetic adults. They bring a vast array of experiences and an almost

religious respect for learning to the classroom. There is a definite belief that the programs in which they participate will translate into enhanced employment opportunities and benefit their futures.

Of course, adults have a variety of obligations competing for their time and energy. So, they expect guidance, direction, criteria, and feedback from their instructors. They need to believe they are studying a body of knowledge that will enable them to successfully master their coursework and prepare them for future study or work. There is little tolerance for uncertainty. Adult learners expect to see a point to their efforts. The aggravations of false starts take time and energy away from their efforts to arrive at the point.

The educational experience of the adult learner also evolves over time. It begins tentatively with claims that classes are attended only for self-enrichment. After some coursework and with completion nearer, the students become more comfortable with the student role and begin to express the notion that they are working for a degree or certificate or to enhance job opportunities.

The library experience is also evolutionary for adult students. Although they may need to learn or relearn basic research skills, adult students are task-oriented when they come to the library. The majority use the library to complete a specific project assigned by an instructor and are interested in information and skills that will help them meet that goal, preferably as quickly and painlessly as possible. Becoming information literate is seldom a primary interest of this group. Only after several encounters with various aspects of the library are students more receptive to mastering the entire system.

Yet, at the same time, the adult students at Northwestern and most other institutions enter a library that has been changed by technology and is very different from those they have encountered previously. Library skills developed years ago are not equal to the challenges of the electronic library. Students are expected to choose from an array of databases and other electronic resources, and without

experience the choices can be daunting. Many students begin searches with databases they have heard about from others or that sound as if they may be appropriate and often spend a great deal of time at a computer without any clear idea of how to proceed. The uncertain aspects of research which is exacerbated by the huge amount of information made available by computers lead to even more apprehension on the part of students. Despite this uncertainty and apprehension, adult students are frequently reluctant to ask for help in the library. Librarians at institutions with large populations of adult students comment that they seldom see adult students at the reference desk. Comfortable as problem-solvers in their roles of parents and employees, adult students are often reluctant to display a need for assistance. They shy away from the traditional role of student they remember from younger days and regard seeking help from a stranger as a last resort. At the same time, students do not generally read the many prompts on the computer screens designed to facilitate independent use. This may be indicative of the fact that learning library skills is not the first priority for these students. When they do request assistance, their questions tend to be vague and require a significant amount of probing from the librarian. Many users want to give only as much information as necessary and then be left to themselves. Although these questions often lead to long explanations from the librarian, many students will begin hasty assertions of understanding to end the conversation and leave. This process is neither productive for the student nor gratifying for the librarian.

So, in examining the adult learner in the library, we find that adult students bring energy, enthusiasm, and a desire for independence to the task of library research. They are more determined to find what they need to meet their immediate goals than to master larger research skills. On the other hand, they are reluctant to seek assistance even when they do not have the skills they need to use available resources effectively. And, they seldom have adequate computer and information retrieval

skills to meet the demands of the new electronic library.

THE SCHAFFNER MODEL

The Schaffner Project of Northwestern University created a model program of library services consciously designed to specifically meet the needs of adult learners. Its main elements are 1) an active instruction program which addresses four main areas: increased comfort and confidence in using libraries and particularly in using the Schaffner Library, proficiency in information retrieval skills, experience with computer technology, and efficient time management; 2) a variety of supportive library services which reinforce the instructional program, including easy access to information technology, research consultations, and writing tutorials; 3) an aggressive program of outreach to the faculty which incorporates the library into the curriculum; and 4) a continuing partnership with the University College administrators in the design, promotion, and support of library services.

Because adult students need to develop new skills to cope with the demands of contemporary libraries, bibliographic instruction has been the foundation of the Schaffner Project.[4] Each semester librarians provide instruction in research skills and in how to use particular library resources to classes with library assignments. Research conducted during the fall of 1991 showed a majority of University College students surveyed had participated in at least one instruction session. This instruction addresses many of the problems presented by adult students. Those students who received instruction were far more likely to use the library, to use it more frequently, to feel more comfortable with computer databases, and to feel better about asking questions of a librarian.

It is not surprising that those students who use the library the most are the most comfortable

with it, but what is surprising is the effect of bibliographic instruction. Bibliographic instruction at Schaffner appeals to students on two level. First, the students are given an overview of the array of services and print and electronic tools available. This knowledge makes the library less forbidding upon initial entry. Second, the reference librarian who presents the session becomes personalized and less of a stranger. The students learn that assistance is available and that the staff is anxious to provide it. The classroom setting highlights the idea that everyone is in the same situation so asking for assistance is not necessarily odd. The response to these sessions was most favorable. Interestingly, those students who had participated in bibliographic instruction reacted positively to it, while these students who had not been part of a session wished they had been.

Library services at Schaffner are delivered in a proactive manner. The librarians have become adept at reading the body language of the students who are having trouble and are quick to offer assistance rather than waiting to be asked. There is a continuing interaction between librarians and users, and the students who use Schaffner enjoy this aggressive style. Because many of the students know the librarians from bibliographic instruction sessions, their interactions are friendly and generally productive. As expected, the assistance and success of early visits to Schaffner builds to acquiring greater skills and comfort in later visits.

The design of library services at Schaffner also takes into account adult students' need for efficient and practical answers to their information needs. All services are available during late afternoon, evening, and weekend hours. Books and photocopies of journal articles are delivered from the main campus libraries within forty-eight hours, and staff contact students with status reports at work or home, via answering machine, fax, or electronic mail.

Easy access to electronic library resources is a critical component of the Schaffner model.

Whenever possible we have chosen computer databases as the preferred method for accessing and delivering information. Schaffner now provides access via a local area network to eleven CD-ROM databases, Lexis/Nexis, First Search, the online catalog, and the Internet, and the list of resources continues to grow. This choice has made building an expensive on-site collection unnecessary which has freed up financial resources to invest in services and programs. [5] Using computer databases allows students to access a large amount of information quickly and efficiently which saves them time and gives them a large result for a minimal mount of time invested. Although students needs to develop new skills to use these resources effectively, the fact that they are learning skills for the future rather than simply relearning old skills makes them more receptive to the effort.

Since the "single most important determinant of the quality of a continuing higher education program is its faculty", outreach to faculty has been an important element of the Schaffner Project. [6] University College faculty begin hearing about the importance of the library and the services available in their hiring interview, and this emphasis continues throughout new faculty orientation and on into the classroom. Before each semester begins, faculty receive information about library services, advice about planning effective library assignments, and examples of past successful library assignments. Librarians telephone each faculty member to inquire about the need for bibliographic instruction and to offer the librarians' services. During the semester, librarians make follow-up calls to faculty whose students are using the library to monitor their progress. Faculty, though often surprised by this emphasis in an adult education program, willingly agree to raise expectations for student research because good support is available from librarians. [7]

Because so many University College faculty are novice teachers, University College provides an extensive faculty development program. An introductory workshop for all new faculty conducted

by several University College administrators and a librarian presents information about teaching adult students, designing library assignments, and University College procedures. Throughout the academic year, the faculty development coordinator operates faculty seminars covering such topics as motivating students, teaching critical thinking skills, grading and evaluating, and integrating library skills.

Finally, a cooperative partnership between the University Library and University College has been critical to the Project's success.[8] Initially, faced with the need to provide access to library services for its students, University College interceded with the University administration to provide additional resources for the Library to launch the Project. As the Project developed, University College administrators have continued to provide support and resources to the Library. Donald Collins, the Dean of University College, strongly advocates the development of effective library skills as critical to the success of its programs and speaks frequently about the importance of the library to University College. As each faculty member is hired, University College deans make it clear that library use across the curriculum is a key part of the University College program, and that librarians are ready and willing to assist faculty. They insure that librarians are visible at all University College events and interact with them as colleagues and team members. This strong and public articulation of the importance of the library has been critical in winning the support of faculty who in turn convince students of its merits.

After seven years, the Schaffner Project has clearly had a major impact on University college and its students. In the Fall 1991 survey, 60% of student surveyed reported using the Schaffner Library during the current semester. Fifty-three percent said they had been given a library assignment during the current semester, and 57% said they had attended at least one instruction session given by a librarian. According to University College administrators, the library programs have helped to further strengthen the University College program. According to Dean Collins, the programs of the library and

the activities of librarians have become such an integral part of University College that it would be difficult to imagine the program without them.

CONCLUSION

In partnership, adult educators and librarians can create quality library programs and services which will meet the information needs and enhance the educational experiences of adult learners. Adult educators should approach librarians at their institutions to communicate with them about the needs of adult learners and to discover what experiences librarians may already have had. They need to work with librarians to create new resources for libraries. They need to continually articulate the importance of library programs to faculty and to central administration. Librarians must invest their energy in learning about adult learners. They must adopt a proactive service philosophy which intensely analyzes users needs and designs program services to meet them. Through the initiatives created by this partnership, adult students will become confident, competent lifelong learners.

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The Contact Hour Conundrum: What Difference Does It Make?

The Impact of Reduced Contact Hours in a Degree Program for Working Adults

by
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Introduction

Non-traditional degree programs, designed to offer adult, working students the opportunity to complete their undergraduate degrees in the evening, will usually offer some or all of the course work in a format which enables the student to accelerate the process. As is the case with the Intensive Program at College of Notre Dame, this acceleration is often made possible by a reduction in the classroom contact hours.

The contact hour reduction is justified by the belief that the adult student is mature, motivated by very specific and generally work-related goals, and is capable of sustained self-study in lieu of classroom time and supervision. Adult learning research would tend to support that belief, but there is resistance by many in higher education who doubt that these factors are sufficient compensation for time in the classroom.

Comparing traditional, full-contact, day programs with non-traditional, reduced-contact evening programs in many institutions can be difficult depending on how many other factors are involved. Non-traditional programs often have separate administrative and academic units with different policies and programs; they may not even use the same faculty. The programs are likely to be off-campus with radically different formats for delivery of learning (lockstep, alternate weekends, etc.) Many offer college credit for prior experiential learning and the degree

conferred by the non-traditional unit will differ in name and curriculum from that offered by the home campus.

The Intensive Evening Degree Program at the College of Notre Dame, particularly the Business Administration program, affords a unique opportunity to assess the impact of reduced contact hours since it eliminates virtually all other variables which might affect the outcome. The program is campus based and academic admission criteria for students transferring to the Intensive program do not differ from those in any other undergraduate program. The College's general education, GPA, residency and unit requirements are the same, and Intensive students go through the same semi-annual advising and registration process, selecting courses from those offered, as that provided for the day students.

The Intensive Business Administration curriculum, with some minor variations, is identical to that offered in the day program as is the degree conferred; no experiential learning credit is given outside of CLEP tests and course challenges. The program resides in the College's Business Division and full- and part-time faculty in the Division teach in both the traditional and non-traditional programs. Intensive business students are also free to take traditional day and evening courses if they choose, though non-intensive students may not take intensive classes. Therefore we are left with two primary variables, the student and the contact hours, within the format of the Intensive Evening Degree Program at the College.

Program History and Characteristics

The Intensive Evening Degree Program, which offered its first classes in the Spring of 1989, was created and designed for working adults who have not completed their Bachelor's degree. Intensive students must be at least 25 years of age, have at least three years of full-time professional work experience, and have completed a minimum of 60 units of transferable college credit.

Intensive classes meet one evening per week for seven weeks, from 6 to 10:15 PM, with one 15 minute break; this is considered one term. Two terms with a week break between comprise a semester; in Fall and Spring this runs concurrent with the College's semester calendar and in Summer matches the College's summer terms. This format allows intensive students

to take traditional day and evening courses as their schedules permit and incorporates Intensive program advising and other administrative processes (grading, billing etc.) into the College's normal registration, vacation and administrative calendar.

Though intensive class contact hours are reduced from those of traditional classes, learning objectives remain unchanged. Thus the program requires a significant amount of self-directed study and commitment from the students, changing the ratio of expected out of class hourly preparation time from two hours per traditional class hour to three hours per intensive class hour.

Other policies support improving the productive use of class time. Text and syllabi are available to students four to six weeks in advance of the semester and assignments are due for the first class. Courses requiring extensive reading can be scheduled for the second term to give more preparation time and those with a project or research requirement may be scheduled for the first term to allow additional time for project completion. Faculty are paid for the semester, and are expected to be available and responsive to students for the entire semester, not only the term of the course taught.

The design and policies of the Intensive program reflect the philosophy of the College. As our mission statement indicates, the College has consistently responded to change and is committed to serving both adult students and the community, while preserving its traditional liberal arts focus on the whole person. While the Intensive program affords the mature, working student the opportunity to complete a degree in a shorter time, it does not compromise the College's academic and curricular standards to do so; nor does it substantively separate the Intensive student from the activities and rhythms of the College.

Assessment Project Methodology

The objective of the assessment project was to compare course content and student outcomes in the Intensive program with those in the traditional day program. Criteria for the inclusion of a course in the project were that the course was part of the business major and had been taught by the same instructor in either the same or consecutive semesters to both intensive and traditional day students.

For each course included the following items were compared: number of students in the class, course syllabi content, text required, student course evaluations, and the grades awarded to the students; this information is readily available and standard across the division. In addition a questionnaire was administered to the instructors involved asking them to comment on any differences that they perceived in student motivation and preparation, class participation, quality of written work and exams, course content and delivery, and their own expectations and observations.

Eight such courses were identified; four were core requirements in the major and four were business electives. The courses covered semesters from Spring of 89, when the first intensive courses were offered, to the Fall of 91 and included courses in economics, management, marketing, finance and general business. Of the six faculty, four were full-time business faculty and two were part-time, three were female and three were male. This range and diversity of curricula and instructors should ensure useful and broadly based information.

Findings

Class Size: Average class size in the intensive courses was 15 to 20 percent smaller than in traditional courses. In order to facilitate the collaborative learning methods and personal involvement encouraged in the Intensive program, intensive courses are currently limited to 20 students per class while the day classes are generally capped at 25 students. The findings are consistent with this practice.

Text and Syllabus Content: In all the courses, the texts selected were identical for both day and intensive classes. Examining the syllabi revealed that, in general, the classes covered the same chapters but most of the intensive syllabi were far more detailed which is reflective of the program requirement that complete syllabi, outlining assignments and individual class content, be available in advance of the semester. If course syllabi are indicative of actual class content, there were no substantive differences in the amount of material covered and the work required of the student in the two groups.

Student Grades: In every course but one, where no discernible difference was noted, intensive students received higher percentages of

A's. Overall, intensive students average 20 percent more A's than day students; if A's and B's are grouped, the increase is still 14 percent higher. Though the grading patterns for both groups indicate the existence of a grading curve, it is consistently skewed more to the high end in the intensive classes.

Student Course Evaluations: The course evaluation form used by the Business Division affords the student the opportunity to "grade" the course on an A to F scale, rank significant instructional and content characteristics, and comment on specific aspects of the course. For this study, the overall course rankings and categorized transcripts of student comments were used for purposes of comparison.

Though the average of the rankings of the intensive students were very close to those of the day students, this is actually true in only two of the courses. Of the remaining six courses, intensive students were far more positive in three courses and far more negative in another three. The most negative response by intensive students was in the course which was oversubscribed. With that one exception, there was no correlation between grades awarded to students and their ranking of the course.

No attempt was made to quantify the students' comments on the course evaluations; of more interest was identifying possible patterns in the different student groups. Intensive students tended to be more critical in the area of class organization, more inclined to comment on what they perceived as poorly structured classes or non-productive activities. Their expectations of what was appropriate for an intensive class, including syllabi, exercises and projects, were very specific and criticism or praise was strong in these areas. Intensive students also occasionally considered some courses too basic in content, which was not a day student perception.

Other than areas of organization and class format, the comments of both groups were consistently far more similar than the overall evaluation rankings would indicate, with students from both groups often using identical phrases, particularly where the comments were negative. If the day students didn't like the text, neither did the intensives in that course. Projects were similarly criticized, as were exams. There were some small differences in the student's perception of the instructor's availability outside of class, which may have been related to whether that instructor's office hours were day or evening.

Faculty Questionnaire. As noted previously, the six faculty were a mix of male and female, full- and part-time. Some have worked primarily with traditional day students and others have more experience with adult populations, including graduate students. Since the Business Division at the College of Notre Dame includes day, intensive and graduate programs, more emphasis is being placed on having full- and part-time faculty who can teach in all programs to provide students more diverse viewpoints, to enable the Division to have more full-time faculty, and to encourage curricula content consistency.

To summarize the comments, faculty tended to validate the assumptions about adult students which have been used to substantiate the reduced contact hours in the Intensive program. In general they see the intensive student as more motivated and better prepared than the traditional day student; they report that intensive students participate more and generally do better on written work and exams.

Faculty indicate only minor differences in instructional content in so far as exams, projects and lectures as concerned but more adjustments in format due to the longer classes in fewer weeks. This is consistent with adult learning theory which emphasizes interactive and experiential based learning models as key to student success. Intensive students were perceived as expecting more of faculty, and faculty report they expect as much or more of intensive students as they do of day students; for some this was an adjustment of initial expectations. In looking at demands upon their time and their personal satisfaction with learning outcomes, faculty did not evidence a strong preference for one group over the other.

Conclusions and Recommendations

The results of this study clearly support the contention that the reduced number of contact hours in the Intensive Business Administration program at the College of Notre Dame does not negatively impact the ability of the adult working student to achieve the same level of attainment as that of the traditional day student in full contact hour classes. Evidence in fact indicates that the intensive students as a group, given the same instructor, text, and course requirements, will perform better than the traditional day student despite reduced hour classes.

Reasons for this result are many and have been offered both in the

faculty comments and in adult learning literature. Meeting the demands of multiple work and family responsibilities as well as those of an intensive learning format requires motivation, maturity and self-discipline. Students without determination and commitment quickly leave the program or more likely will not even opt to try it. The attention to organization, preparation and collaborative learning methods demanded of both faculty and students also contributes to intensive student achievement.

While the program at College of Notre Dame did eliminate many structural variables that impact other programs, we should not underestimate the influence exerted by our particular policies and our continuing efforts to integrate both students and faculty under the Business Division umbrella.

When methods of assessing outcomes in particular disciplines and degree areas are more widespread and applied to a variety of educational environments, the contact hour conundrum will be easier to resolve. Other questions about to what degree contact hours can be reduced without harming academic quality and if hours can or should vary greatly by subject and/or student still need resolution and require more testing.

As a program director, I found this project very helpful not only in validating program quality, but in providing me a broader perspective on both students and faculty. It would be useful to use these classes to specifically examine how outcomes are achieved. Can we transfer techniques between groups and increase success for all? We might start by considering both populations adults; the difference is one of degree of maturity, not character.

As we expand our assessment vocabulary to look at student and faculty portfolios, classroom research, and capstone experiences, other comparisons of different populations should become richer and more helpful in suggesting ways of improving the learning process. As a school calendar based on planting corn and an organizational day based on an arbitrary 9 to 5, five day workweek are increasingly being questioned as to how well they fit diverse and changing human and technological resources, so the standard of a prescribed number of contact hours per a unit of credit needs more testing to ensure it fits the student to whom it is applied.

HELLO OUT THERE!
GETTING IN TOUCH WITH POTENTIAL STUDENTS

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City University of New York Baccalaureate Program

SECTION 1: THE PROGRAM:

Established in 1971, the City University of New York Baccalaureate Program (CUNY BA/BS) is a university-wide alternate degree program with over 4,000 graduates that enrolls about 600 active students each semester. In most contexts these numbers would be impressive: against the backdrop of CUNY's 200,000 students, however, they are less dramatic.

The program's normal retention rate is over 70%, and 49% of the graduates receive their degree with honors. Students are predominantly older (75% are over 25), the female/male ratio is 54% to 46%, one third are members of ethnic minorities, and about one-half began their studies in a community college.

The CUNY BA/BS is selective. To be eligible for admission, students must have earned at least 15 credits with a GPA of 2.5 or higher (at least for recent academic work), have passed the CUNY skills tests in reading, writing, and mathematics, and be matriculated at a CUNY college. The program gives students the combination of structure and flexibility that is particularly well-suited to the needs of mature students. In terms of structure, for example, all students complete a thirteen course liberal arts and sciences core, satisfy several specific credit requirements, and maintain at least a 2.5 grade point average both overall and in their area of concentration -

which corresponds to a major. In terms of flexibility, there are no specific course requirements (everything from Basque to Urdu has been used to satisfy the language requirement, for example) and students can almost literally study whatever they want. In response to that freedom, students have designed wonderfully creative areas of concentration such as Museum and Exhibition Design, Corporate Fitness Management, and Aquatic Biology.

All students are guided in their studies by CUNY faculty mentors from the appropriate discipline[s]. This ensures that the work they do is academically valid and justifies awarding the degree. The rule of thumb mentors apply is that the work students do in an area of concentration will prepare them for graduate level work. This criterion clearly works: the CUNY BA and BS degrees are held in high regard and program graduates have been accepted for further study at practically every one of the country's leading universities, often receiving scholarships or prestigious fellowships.

Other features of the program are that CUNY BA/BS students may take courses at any of the 17 two and four year CUNY colleges; may take graduate level courses for undergraduate credit, and may earn up to 30 credits for non-classroom work such as fieldwork, independent study, and prior experiential learning.

SECTION 2: THE CHALLENGE

In fall 1991, the program received a grant from the Ford Foundation. The grant challenged us to locate and recruit 25 former community college students who had completed at least 45 credits with a GPA of 2.5 or higher, and who had been out of school for at least two years.

The remainder of this paper discusses the recruiting strategies

we tried and what we learned both about successful recruiting and about re-entry adults.

SECTION 3: SEARCHING FOR STUDENTS

Since we were only asking for a chance to let employees know of an exciting, proven way to complete their degree, not for money or a commitment of resources, we expected employers to be receptive and cooperative. So the first strategy we designed was to work through the personnel departments of major public and private employers: IBM, Blue Cross and Blue Shield, the Metropolitan Transportation Authority, the FBI, several major banks. Thinking to make our entrée even smoother, we targeted those businesses that we knew were employing current or recently graduated CUNY BA/BS students. The student's consent was asked before we contacted the employer, and students were often helpful in providing the name and title of the person to whom we could address our request for cooperation. In many cases, students took the initiative of speaking to the appropriate officer and encouraging a positive response. We contacted a total of 47 corporations, agencies, businesses, and labor unions: the response was extremely disappointing. Many employers did not even acknowledge our letter, others declined to cooperate pleading various reasons, such as that the program would not interest their employees, or that they had a previous arrangement with another college. We received just two invitations to make a presentation.

Clearly, we had to find a better way to reach our target population. We tried a small-scale experiment using some alumni as auxiliary recruiters. This yielded encouraging results: 63 enquiries were received from individuals, and also an invitation to make a

presentation at the the Bronx District Attorney's Office which proved to be one of our most important connections. A mailing to 60 community college graduates from a list a college provided produced a very good 11.5% response rate. We designed and distributed 3,000 flyers that focussed on the program's ability to help working people complete the degree.

4. CASE STUDIES

Because we knew that for working adults the decision to return to college is complex and difficult, we thought we were prepared for any situations they might face. We were wrong. We were repeatedly amazed at the magnitude of the obstacles many of those we worked with had to overcome in order to return to college. Three examples will illustrate this point:

JEFFREY

Jeffrey is 38 and has been out of college for 12 years. Having already earned 80 credits, he needs only 40 more for his degree. He is engaged to be married, and shared all the college information he received with his fiancée. At first she was happy for him, but then began raising constant objections to his plans. After weeks of arguments, Jeffrey discovered that her real fear was that once he had his degree he would leave her behind, since she had never been to college. Jeffrey wanted his degree but did not want to lose his "dream woman." He came to the office to explain his decision not to go through with his plan to re-enter college. We suggested that both Jeffrey and his fiancée attend college part time and he agreed that this solution might work. Three days later he called asking for an application for his fiancée: both of them are now taking courses at

the same college, but in different programs.

PAT

A bright, energetic 31 year-old, Pat has an AAS in Dental Hygiene and a good full time job. Her husband is a lawyer. Pat often thought about returning to college but never got around to doing anything about it until she heard about the CUNY BA/BS Program. Then she acted quickly and purposefully completing the application process very quickly. However, when we telephoned to tell her that everything was in order and she should come for her admission interview, she said she would have to abandon her plans as her mother had just been diagnosed with inoperable lung cancer.

THOMAS

Thomas is a very large 50 year old. He has earned 67 credits, some in class but most by examination because, he said, being in a classroom produces in him "instant boredom." But he heard a recording of our standard presentation about the program and after listening to it five times decided to give college one more try. He finally admitted that his dislike of the classroom is a result of his size: he has never felt physically comfortable in a classroom and has been the butt of unkind comments since high school. Having faced and admitted the true source of his concern to a caring Recruiter/ Counselor, Thomas is no longer frightened of remarks fellow students may make, even though he still worries about fitting into a standard size desk.

5. OUTCOMES

As of August 1, we had received 145 enquiries and 55 applications. Of the applicants, 42 were accepted for fall 1992 and 5 others for spring, 1993. Of the 42 admitted, 74% are women (as

against the program average of 54%), 64% are members of minorities (the program average is one third). They had been out of college from 2 to 15 years and had earned from 16 to 90 college credits.

6. CONCLUSIONS: WHAT WE LEARNED

Clearly, there are in New York large numbers of former college students ready to come back and finish their degree if they can just find a way to do this that is right for them. I am sure this is also the case throughout the country, given the national ratio of college graduates to students admitted. The trick is to get in touch with them. In New York City, working through employers and union locals was essentially non-productive. Not only were most employers uncooperative, but we found that about 20% of the students whom we recruited did not want their employer to know that they were returning to college. The most frequent reason given was, "My boss does not have a degree and may feel that I will be a threat."

The recruiting strategies that worked for us were tapping into the enthusiasm of a small group of individuals, including some alumni, who promoted the program primarily by word of mouth, creating a special flyer and distributing it widely, and direct mail. Next time we plan to do more of all of those things and also to advertise in the subways.

The second thing we learned is that academic paperwork - filling in an application, getting transcripts, matriculating at a college, getting letters or recommendation - is frightening and frustrating for re-entry adults. It is essential to simplify paperwork and procedures. We designed a special one page application form, prepared another form for applicants to use in requesting

transcripts, offered help at every stage and did a lot of handholding. For example, we called applicants every two weeks to let them know the status of their application. Their motivation and enthusiasm increased noticeably once they heard that all the paperwork had been received and their application was complete. They began to use academic terminology (electives, liberal arts, area of concentration, for example) with a new assurance and to discuss course selection and class schedules.

Finally, having identified potential students, one has to be prepared to give them lots of attention and support. People who have been out of college for a number of years have lost confidence in their ability to negotiate higher education successfully. They need constant reassurance, and that reassurance is more effective when given in person or by telephone. Writing doesn't work as well. A number of applicants telephoned at least once a week, often to ask a question to which we knew they already had the answer. But they needed to feel they were still in contact, that we remembered them, knew who they were, and cared that they return to school and get their degree.

We contacted one potential re-entry adult more than a dozen times: she finally said, "If you're so determined to get me back to college, I guess I should do something about it." Yes, this kind of recruitment is very labor-intensive: but we have no doubt that the rewards are commensurate.